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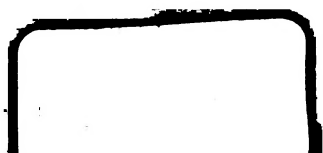
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**THE**  
**CRITICAL REVIEW;**  
**OR,**  
**ANNALS OF LITERATURE.**



THE  
CRITICAL REVIEW;

OR,

Annals of Literature;

EXTENDED AND IMPROVED.

BY

A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

*A NEW ARRANGEMENT.*

VOLUME the TWENTIETH.

————— NOTHING EXTENUATE,  
NOR SET DOWN AUGHT IN MALICE.

SHAKSP.

QUALIS AB INCEPTO.

HOR.

L O N D O N,



PRINTED FOR A. HAMILTON, FALCON-COURT, FLEET-STREET.

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NEW YORK  
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THE  
JOURNAL  
OF  
THE  
ROYAL ANTHROPOLOGICAL INSTITUTE  
OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND  
VOLUME 34  
PART 1  
1904

ROYAL ANTHROPOLOGICAL INSTITUTE  
JOURNAL  
1904

# THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For MAY, 1797.

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*The History of Scotland, from the Accession of the House of Stuart to that of Mary. With Appendixes of original Papers. By John Pinkerton. 2 Vols. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Dilly. 1797.*

THE history of Scotland is less fertile in remarkable events and momentous transactions than that of England, and is therefore less interesting to the general reader. But, notwithstanding this comparative deficiency, it must be allowed to possess considerable attractions; and the strong features of character by which the Scots are marked, add to the spirit and importance of the narrative.

The panegyric pronounced by the late Mr. Gibbon upon the author of the present history, may have induced many persons to form very high expectations of the work. Hopes thus extravagant may perhaps be disappointed: but no candid reader, we think, will deny, that the praise of accuracy, strengthened by penetration, is due to this new historian of the earlier princes of the house of Stuart.

These volumes comprehend a part of the Scottish history which had not before been examined with the requisite diligence and attention, though the preceding and subsequent periods have been ably illustrated. A multiplicity of new materials have been used for the different reigns; and detections of error are the natural result of the author's labour and vigilance. He laments the 'cruel necessity' which subjected him to the task 'of being his own pioneer, of proceeding as in an American forest, with most cautious steps through the swamps, and earnestly clearing his way amid the brambles and thickets of perplexity and error.'

The royal characters which Mr. Pinkerton has delineated, are not exhibited, according to the usual practice, at the end of each reign, but at the beginning. He is of opinion, that the established custom creates a desire of re-perusing the narrative of the reign, with a view of remarking its correspondence

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dence with the portrait : but a reader may be said to have made a negligent use of his time, if he does not retain in his mind the principal occurrences and transactions, so as to distinguish, on the survey of a character, whether the *traits* are well or ill marked, as far as may be judged from the acts of the prince's reign.

The author mentions, as a novelty, the retrospect which he has given, at particular epochs, of the state of the country with regard to civilisation, laws, commerce, and the arts. But such a review is not so infrequent among historical writers, as to be properly termed a novelty.

The work opens with just remarks on the absurd prejudices of party, exemplified in the practice of applying to the house of Stuart general terms either of commendation or obloquy, when it appears that the princes of that line were 'as various in their characters and conduct, as those of any other genealogy and country.' After having traced the public appearance of this family to the reign of David I. when Walter the son of Alan was steward of Scotland, the historian speaks of its flourishing state, as having only the house of Douglas for its rival in power. Of the seventh high steward, whose descent from the daughter of Robert de Brus introduced the Stuarts to the honours of royalty, he has thus sketched the portrait—

'The person of Robert II was however large and majestic. The qualities of his mind it is difficult to mark with precision. The disease of his eyes seems to have induced a desire of privacy, and age a propensity to indolence, and the indolent are always ruled by those around them. War he shunned, and declined the laborious office of a general; but the leaders whom he appointed were well chosen and successful. In the more difficult and more truly glorious arts of peace, he is intitled to considerable praise. The terrors of justice he knew how to deal impartially to the guilty, while he opened every gate of protection to the innocent. His actions proceeded in a solid and rational tenor; and his promise was the exact standard of his performance. Internal discords his equity appeased; and though his own age, and the infirmity of the apparent heir, rendered his reign feeble, yet his wisdom prevented it from being unfortunate. In a word he is little known to history, because he was a good king, and a good man.' Vol. i. p. 9.

Those who will take the trouble of comparing this character with that which Buchanan has drawn of the same prince, will find it to be, in substance, a translation. Some new strokes might easily have been added.

In the narrative of the two wars in which this monarch was engaged, Froissart and Walsingham are chiefly followed, not without reference to manuscript authorities. For the account

of the reign of Robert III. and of the two regencies subsequent to the death of that weak prince, Bowar, the continuator of the chronicle of Fordun, has furnished the greater part of the materials.

The first James of the house of Stuart is presented to the reader in a very favourable light. During his long and unjustifiable captivity in England, he had improved his mind by study and observation; and, at his return to his native country, he was well qualified for the exercise of sovereignty.

‘His prime of life was recommended by every advantage, which natural talents, and a complete education, could bestow. In person he was rather under the middle size, but endued with such firmness and agility as to excell in every manly exercise. In wrestling, in the management of the bow, or the spear, in throwing the quoit, in running, in horsemanship, he yielded to none. But his mental abilities were yet more conspicuous. A man of science and learning, an excellent poet, a master of music, the fame of his accomplishments reflected glory even on the throne. Illustrious in every personal virtue, free from every personal vice, his very amusements adorned his character; his hours of leisure being frequently dedicated to elegant writing, and miniature painting, to mechanical arts, and to the cultivation of the garden and the orchard.

‘The features of his government it is more difficult to discriminate. If we believe some writers, not less than three thousand men were put to death, in the two first years of his reign; and after the inroad of Donald Balloch, three hundred highland banditti met with the same fate. Happily these matters are quite unknown to contemporary and authentic monuments of our history: the justice of James fell only on a few nobles, and some chiefs of clans; but the numerous dependants of those victims of equitable severity embraced every occasion to excite discontents, and propagate falsehoods against the government, falsehoods which have even passed into the page of history, for one of the misfortunes of the house of Stuart has consisted in the prejudices of several Scottish historians. If any blame must fall, let it fall where it ought, upon the misrule of the house of Albany. To a people who had lived for half a century under a loose and delegated government, and who had been accustomed to regard licence as liberty, it is no wonder that the punishment of crimes seemed quite a new and strange cruelty: that a salutary strength of government appeared despotism; that a necessary and legal taxation assumed the shape of tyrannic extortion. The commons, led by the nobles, absurdly regarded the cause of the latter as their own, and saw not that the king in crushing the aristocracy was doing the most essential service to his people. The plans of James were sagacious and profound, but sometimes incur the charge of temerity; and while they partake of the greatness of genius,

they are limited by the want of a sufficient power in the Scottish monarchy for their complete execution. In a word James is fully entitled to the uncommon character of a great sovereign, in the arts of government and of peace.' Vol. i. p. 108.

No light appears to have been thrown upon the reign of this monarch by the present narrator; but a new account is given of the unfortunate event by which it was closed, the particulars of the assassination of James being borrowed from a curious manuscript, unknown to the former historians of Scotland.

In the retrospect of the state of North Britain during this and the two preceding reigns, we meet with information which is not uninteresting. At this period, the Scots were 'slowly advancing from barbarism towards civilisation;' so slowly indeed, that more polished foreigners continued to regard the nation as completely barbarous.

'James I (it is remarked) has himself delineated the manners of the common people, in his poem called *Pebbis to the Play*. This play was probably an annual festival, in honour of the saint to whom the church was dedicated, or on some other occasion; and such wakes are yet known in the north of England. The humour and jollity of the meeting end in tumult and uproar, but display a very different character to the gloomy fanaticism of the two succeeding centuries. From this singular poem, among other articles of manners, we learn that the women wore kerchiefs and hoods, and tippets; the music arose from the bagpipe; the men sometimes wore hats of birch-twigs interwoven, the hat being any high covering of the head, while the bonnet was flat. A tavern, with fair table linen, and a regular score on the wall, are introduced: the reckoning twopence halfpenny a piece, is collected in a wooden trencher. The cadger, or packman who carries fish, &c. through the country, on his little horse; the salmon dance, consisting in exertions of high-leaping; and other anecdotes of popular manners, diversify the piece.

The dress of the common people consisted chiefly of a doublet and cloke, and a kind of short trowse; the head was covered with a hat of basket-work, or felt, or with a woollen bonnet; while the legs and feet remained bare. Shirts were hardly known even to the great. The female dress was a kerchief or hood, and a tippet about the neck: the kirtle, or close gown, was rarely accompanied either with the wylicot or under petticoat, or with the mantle; and the feet were naked.

'As the state of society was rather pastoral than agricultural, milk, and its various preparations, formed a chief article of food. Meat boiled with oatmeal, or fish, supplied more solemn meals. Bread and vegetables were little used, a circumstance to which it

may perhaps be imputed that the leprosy was not uncommon. The chief fish was the salmon, concerning the capture of which many regulations occur in the acts of parliament, and which also formed a grand article in the Scottish exports.' Vol. i. p. 153.

The feudal government which prevailed in those times rendered the king dependent on the aristocracy, while each baron possessed such privileges as gave him a kind of sovereignty within his own jurisdiction. The endeavours of James to restrain the power of the nobility were not wholly inefficacious; but the arduous task required a long succession of such efforts.

In the Scottish parliament, the most striking object was the number of ecclesiastics, which exceeded that of the peers. The business of legislative deliberation was almost entirely left to the clergy, as the barons were unskilled in debate, and the burgesses were mere ciphers. But it did not frequently happen that debates arose, as the operations of the parliament were previously settled by the *lords of the articles*.

Manufactures, at the time alluded to, did not flourish among the Scots; and their commerce rarely extended beyond the Netherlands. In architecture they had some skill: painting was not unknown among them; and, in music, they had made some proficiency.

For the next reign (that of James II.) the original materials are not so copious as could be wished: but, of those which occur, the author has made a good use. The character of the young monarch is thus represented—

' His actions proclaim him a prince of decisive, and sometimes even violent spirit. In war he was a valiant and popular leader; and surpassed his father in a marked attention to military discipline. Negligent of pomp, the equal of every soldier, he shared the mean repast of the march, confident that poison is seldom administered in vessels of wood, reposing absolute faith in the love of his people. The power of his abilities, the excellence of his intentions in peace, are best displayed by the laws of his reign, always the most instructive and valuable portion of history. His wisdom appears conspicuous, in his reverence for the counsels of the wise, in guiding his most important actions by the experience of Crichton, and the benign and patriotic prudence of Kennedy. The perdition of the aristocratic and tyrannic house of Douglas was to be a spirited exertion of justice to himself, and to his people. But that any fixed plan yet existed, for the destruction of the aristocracy, seems a refined theory, incongruous with the ignorance and spirit and manners of the times; and is best confuted by the plain facts, that the families abased are ever remarkable for important crimes, and that the property, and power, which were withdrawn from one house, were ever to be bestowed on another. Even when Louis XI. and

Henry VII, were, towards the termination of this century, in countries of greater civilization, and political science, to humble the aristocracy, an unprejudiced reader will be ready to infer that the events proceed rather from chance, and circumstances, and the rotation of society, than from design. As to the person of the second James, we only know, that it was robust; and that a red tinge, which deformed one of his cheeks, gave him the vulgar appellation of James with the fiery face.' Vol. i. p. 209.

The commotions of this reign principally arose from the turbulent ambition of the house of Douglas. One of the earls of this family lost his life by the insidious violence of the chancellor Crichton; and another was stabbed by the king himself, one of whose officers completed the murder. The conduct of James, in this instance, was highly reprehensible; nor is it a sufficient apology to affirm that the power of Douglas placed him 'above the procedure of justice.' The next head of the family, being unsuccessful in his rebellious attempts, fled to England, which was then governed by Richard duke of York, who is supposed to have encouraged him in his traitorous schemes. After a long exile, he returned in arms to his native country; and, being made a prisoner, was sentenced to the seclusion of a monastery.

The administration of James III. was marked by the licentiousness of tyranny, to which were added the evils of anarchy. The augmented power of the chancellor promoted the king's tyrannical views; and other circumstances (says Mr. Pinkerton)—

'Conspired to extend the prerogative during this reign, unhappily not upon the prudent plan, soon after to be followed by Henry VII of England, in depressing the nobles and raising the people; but upon that already established by Louis XI of France, in crushing the spirit and freedom of the commons, with those of the aristocracy. In Scotland the people never knew their own weight, and the government turned between aristocracy and despotism; the nobles and the king commonly forgetting the nation, which deserved the neglect while it silently abandoned its awful claim. But till James VI acceded to the English throne, and left the Scottish nobles at a great distance, and in a degrading inferiority, despotism made but a slow progress in Scotland, and the chief evils arose from the aristocracy which prevented the progress of industry and civilization. Yet the conduct of James III seems to evince that the nation could have no reason to prefer the power of the king to that of the nobles; for the despot who prescribed degrading laws, and expressed open contempt for the nation, represented in its legislative assembly, was yet more inimical than the aristocracy; which, even by its dissensions, maintained, in some degree,



degree, the freedom, the vital current of the nation. A chief motive of the arbitrary procedure of James III appears to have arisen from the temporary humiliation of the nobility; who, though still possessed of equal power, as they were after to shew in the imprisonment and slaughter of their sovereign, yet were awed for a time by the ruinous examples of the houses of Douglas and Boyd. The contemporary reign of Louis XI seems also to have corrupted the counsels of James; for not only did the alliance with France introduce, at different times, many imitations of the French government and institutions into Scotland, but James seems to have selected Louis for his particular model: yet as a man of abilities never imitates, so happily, in the present instance, abilities cannot be imitated. Crimes and faults may: and we behold Louis reflected, so to speak, by James, in the heavy suspicion of a brother's blood, in contempt of the nobility, and in the choice of low favourites, in an appearance of devotion, in attachment to astrology, in avarice, in a life of retirement and jealousy, and in the love of arbitrary power. In their attention to some sciences they were also similar; and the patronage of Louis to an ingenious foreigner, Galeotus Magius, is rivalled by that of James to another, William Roger, the English composer of music. But the success of their political plans was very different. Louis, assisted by chance and circumstances, laid the lasting foundation of absolute power, levelled the nobility, crushed the people; and by discontinuing the states general annihilated national freedom. James wished to establish arbitrary government by the depression of the nobles, and the people; and by converting the national council, which neither his abilities nor his power would permit him to discontinue, into a mere court: but he forgot that neither his revenue, nor his authority, corresponded with his designs; and fell a sacrifice to the aristocracy, whose influence resumed its former sway.' Vol. i. p. 273.

In the retrospect which follows the reign of James III. the historian has given an ample account of the constitution of the parliament of Scotland. He cannot trace the appearance of burghesses in that assembly to an earlier epoch than the year 1326. He refers the institution of lords of the articles to 1370; and speaks of that committee as not having arisen from any arbitrary intentions, but merely from views of convenience. He minutely explains the duties of the chief officers of state; and exhibits as clear a view of the general government and laws of the realm as his imperfect lights would afford.

Commerce and the useful arts were still insufficiently encouraged in Scotland. Science was also neglected; nor were the votaries of polite literature very numerous. Luxury had made some advances among the nobles and the clergy; and,

though the former were inspired with a taste for chivalry, they did not possess all the virtues of true knights.

(To be continued.)

*Travels in Hungary, with a short Account of Vienna in the Year 1793. By Robert Townson, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. &c. Illustrated with a Map and Sixteen other Copper-Plates. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.*

**T**HE author of this publication gives the following account of it in the Preface—

‘ Though (says he) so many tours have appeared of late, Hungary has never been the subject of one of them; it is nevertheless a country, though so circumstanced as to be of little political importance to Britain, worthy of our attention: its constitution, its people, and their manners, and its natural productions, are all remarkable.

‘ I know that the present work, the corrected notes of a five months’ tour, does not supply this deficiency; on the contrary, I am conscious that on some very important matters I have only slightly touched; yet even this small pittance of information on a country so little known, and yet in itself so highly interesting, will, I hope, be thought not too insignificant to be laid before the public. Had I drawn up this tour in Hungary, where I could easily have obtained information when my own notes were too short or obscure, a far more interesting work would probably now have appeared; but in the turbulent times that have succeeded, it has been very difficult to obtain any information through correspondents. An absence likewise of eight years from Britain will, I hope, be received as an excuse for some inaccuracies of language.

‘ I have purposely said but little on the mines of this kingdom; a fuller account would have led me into too much detail not to have been tedious to every one but the professed miner.’ P. ix.

Of a seemingly good map, somewhat negligently coloured in the copy which has fallen under our observation, he proceeds to say—

‘ I think I need make no apology for annexing the map; it must be pleasing to every reader to see at one view all the principal natural and artificial productions of the country, and the different nations which inhabit it, express’d on a map, besides what is generally mark’d upon them. I am not the author of it, and the only merit I can claim is that of having adapted it to the English reader, by translating what admitted of translation, and of making some trifling alterations in it. I have, for instance, as far as my information

tion extended, distinguished the hot mineral waters from the cold; I have altered the denomination of diamond to rock crystal, *Pelecanus bassanus* to *Pelecanus onocrotalus*, and *Mus noricus* to *Marmota alpina*, as these appellations were certainly erroneous. I have added three or four new signs, and extended the plan of the author by signifying more of the productions, as horned cattle, horses, sheep, hogs, honey, silk, corn, &c. &c. by figures of these objects, and not by letters; and other signs I have improved. I have marked the seat of the Cumanians, Jazygers, and Haydukes, and added the post-roads, and my own route. In the explanation of the signs, which consisted of three languages, the Latin, German, and Hungarian, I have omitted the German and added the English. The *petrography* is wholly by me.

‘It will probably be thought that some of the productions should have been omitted as too trifling, and that others might have been added. M. Korabinsky, the author of it, who does not pretend to be a man of science or a naturalist, has only given it that degree of perfection his humble situation permitted; and I would rather be censured for altering too little than too much.

‘Though so many things are noted on this map, I hope it will not be found confused; for though the *petrography*, as well as the nations, are marked by colours, yet the subjects of each may be easily distinguished, as the nations are denoted by a mere outline, whilst the *petrography* is washed. And if through carelessness in colouring the *petrography*, a doubt should arise what is designed by any colour, the figures 1 to 13, which I have added to the colours, will, through the corresponding figures in the table of colours, clear up the doubt. Had I had opportunities of observing the nature of the rocks through a more extensive tract of country, it would have been worth while to have made a separate map on this subject; but circumscribed as my observations have been, I think it is not. When mineralogy and physical geography shall be more cultivated, which one day they certainly will, these maps will become common, and their union will give an easy and visible representation of the coating of our globe, that is, of its rocks and strata and their relative situations. This is not merely a matter of curious speculation, but, as different minerals are peculiar to certain strata, of real utility, conveying important knowledge in the statistics of a country.

‘The post-roads I have taken from another map on a smaller scale; I could, therefore, often, only draw a straight road from one principal town to another, without being able to ascertain whether the different smaller towns or villages through which I have conducted the roads, are really thus situated upon them. As public roads are indicative of the state of improvement of a country, they ought not to be omitted in maps of this nature.” P. x.

Even the outline of a tour which strays so widely, as that

we

we are considering, from the ordinary track of fashionable travel, and presents us with a view of life and manners in situations new to the generality of readers, cannot but excite curiosity, and merit a candid perusal. What it communicates, if worthy the attention of the philosopher, the historian, the geographer, and the naturalist, is just so much gained; and its defects, however to be regretted, certainly have a fair claim to indulgence, where the writer has evidently wanted the means of information.

Our author commences his work with some account of Vienna, at which place he arrived in the beginning of the winter, but thought it expedient to wait the return of fine weather, on account of the difficulties he had reason to expect in his progress through Hungary. His account of the capital, though rather desultory, and in substance differing little from the narrations of other travellers, is not however destitute of curious matter. Our readers will probably be gratified with the following extracts, in which it will be seen that the author coincides with the generality of German travel-writers as to the disposition of that people to good eating—

‘ The markets next claim the attention of the naturalist; and these, to the Vienna people, who are noted for being addicted *à la gourmandise*, are things of the first moment: a deficiency in livers of geese and small birds might cause a revolution, or be considered as a sufficient cause of delivering up the city if besieged. They are well supplied. I have sometimes seen a score of wild hogs, and a dozen of stags in the game market at the same time, and hares literally by cart-loads, with abundance of pheasants and partridges.’ p. 11.

‘ The livers of geese are esteemed a great delicacy: they are eaten stewed. Some poulterers have a method of making them grow to an enormous size. This is kept a secret amongst the Jews, who are the principal feeders. I have been informed by different people, that the geese are only kept in very small pens, where they cannot move, and are crammed chiefly with Indian wheat, and are allowed little or no water. This is as much a subject of pathology as of œconomy: to an English palate they are not so good as calves’ liver.

‘ Some of the tame hogs that supply the Vienna market ought to be particularly noticed; I mean those which come from the Turkish frontiers, from Bosnia and Servia. When they arrive at Vienna, though they have performed so long a journey, they are so fat as scarce to be able to walk, and can only travel a few miles in a day. They are the handsomest of the hog kind, and apparently of a mild disposition. What makes me particularly mention them is their skin,  
which

which is covered, exclusive of the usual bristles, with a coarse kind of wool, like that of the wild hog.' p. 12.

Of the cold-blooded animals, which form an important article in the catalogue of German luxuries, we have the following account—

‘As an appendage to the fish market, is the tortoise, frog and snail market. There are two species of tortoises, the *orbicularis*, and the *græca*. The first is considered as the most delicate; it is the food of the opulent: one 7 or 8 inches long costs about a shilling. The latter is chiefly used for soup, and is something cheaper. When I saw these animals in the frosty weather, they shewed no signs of life, and were lying in all directions like so many stones; when I brought them into my room, they generally remained torpid, till they had been there a couple of hours. The market people know how to distinguish the males from the females, by the sternum of the latter being more convex, viewed from without, than in the males; hence they are thicker.

‘Frogs are another delicacy. Both the edible, *esculenta*, and the common frog, *temporaria*, are eaten; but the latter is much less esteemed, as its flesh is not so white. It is the hind legs which are in request: 2 pairs cost about three halfpence; they are therefore by no means a cheap dish. The fore legs and livers are mostly used for soup.

‘These poor animals are brought from the country thirty or forty thousand at a time, and sold to the great dealers, who have conservatories for them. These are large holes, four or five feet deep, dug in the ground, the mouth of which is covered with a board, and with straw in severe weather. I have often visited these conservatories in the hard frost, but never found their inhabitants quite torpid. When I placed them on their backs, they were sensible of the change, and had strength to turn themselves. They get together in heaps, one upon another, instinctively, and thereby prevent the evaporation of their humidity: no water is given them. I found many of them dead, and not for want of water, as I found this fluid in their bladder. Many I imagine had died of the injuries they had received during their captivity; others, no doubt, by being arrived at that period at which the powers of life are feeble, and easily destroyed. There are only three great dealers: these supply most of those who bring them to the market ready for the cook. The snail, *helix pomatia*, closes the list of *maigre* dishes. It is not eaten through economy, as seven of them, at the *traiteurs*, are charged the same as a plate of veal or beef. They are eaten boiled, fried in butter, and sometimes stuffed with farce meat. The sliminess remains after being dressed, yet they are considered as a delicacy!!! but *De gustibus non est disputandum*. The greatest quantity and the finest come from Suabia. The fondness

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of the good people of Vienna for these things is no new capricious taste; for Dr. Brown, who was here above a century ago, makes the remark in his travels, that, since their markets were so well provided, "he was surprised to meet with some odd dishes at their tables, as guinea pigs, divers sorts of snails, and tortoises." p. 13.

This account is succeeded by a concise description of the *betze*, or German bull-baiting, a Sunday evening's amusement, at which, not the 'low vulgar' only (as in England) are seen, but 'gentlemen and ladies' also. The reflections excited by this sight in our author's mind do honour to his sensibility, and will be read with advantage by those who do not yet hold in due abhorrence all 'scenes of misery where the sufferings of one part of the creation are made the pastime of the other.'

In the succeeding account of the hot-houses in the imperial garden of Schoebrun, the author is obliged to have recourse to technical description, little gratifying to the generality of readers, but essential to the accurate description of scientific objects. He transcribes a catalogue of the rare plants to be found in that famous collection, which occupies more than three pages, and which can only be relished by the botanist.

Under the head of politics we find many excellent remarks. In the description of the political condition of the Hungarians, the antipathy of that nation towards the Austrians, and the causes of it, are very satisfactorily accounted for. Previous to the detail of the innovations of Joseph II. which so greatly alienated the minds of the Hungarians, our author takes a view of the constitution of the kingdom, from which we take the following extract—

'The Hungarians are a brave, generous, and hardy race of men. Voltaire, in his Eloge of Montesquieu, speaking of this nation, says, "Une nation fiere et genereuse, le fleau de ses tyrans et l'appui de ses souverains."

'This spirit has preserved to them some of the most valuable rights of a people, and has kept hitherto the power of the monarch from rising into arbitrary sway;—though this has varied here, as in other countries, as a weak and unfortunate, or as an ambitious and successful one has reigned. Not only when the crown was elective, as till 1682, in the reign of Leopold I. but even now that it is become hereditary, in the house of Austria, in gratitude for that emperor's driving the Turks out of Hungary, it is the fundamental law of the land, that every new sovereign, on ascending the throne, shall solemnly swear to the nation, to grant them their rights. These rights have been thought most sacred, and king Andrew II. in the thirteenth century, went so far as to promise, in

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his *diploma*, or coronation oath, to allow his subjects to take up arms against him, if he infringed them. Several of his successors have signed this *diploma*, and the same is still in use, except that this particular article, permitting the rebellion of the subjects, is protested against; but a coronation oath, of which such an article could be a part, must certainly be very favourable to the liberty of the nation.

' The two greatest privileges of a people, those of legislation and taxation, are still in their hands; and the sovereign has only a *veto* in the legislation. The choice of the Palatine, a kind of viceroy, from four candidates presented by the sovereign, and the reception of strangers as denizens, are privileges likewise belonging to the people. But the king has the unquestioned right of deciding on war and peace; he has a *veto* in the legislation; the gift of the great offices in the church and state, those of the Palatine, and keepers of the crown, excepted; it is he who creates nobility; and coining, and pardoning criminals, are his prerogatives.

' Thus the executive government of the kingdom is in the hands of the sovereign. On his ascent to the throne, in public parade, on horseback, he draws his sword, and strikes towards the four points, indicating that he takes upon him its defence against its enemies from every quarter. But the raising of supplies for carrying on of war belongs to the nation, who can only grant them in a diet; and before standing armies were so general, when the defence of the kingdom depended on the nobility, it was here where they met, to consider of the number of troops that were to be brought into the field, being convened by the sovereign for that purpose.

' But what is the nation? — Who constitutes the people? — To whom do these valuable rights belong? — In this country, as in others where society is in its childhood, the nation, alas! is only the great aristocratic body of nobles and clergy; and the productive part of the community, the citizens and peasants, have few or no rights, and no interference in public affairs; yet must submissively bear all the burthens of the state.

' As the peasants were, till 1785, under the *glebe adscriptio*, or in the state of villanage, they could never be considered as forming a part of the nation; and the deputies of the free towns being considered almost as intruders, it was, and still is, the aristocratic body which checks the power of the crown; and it is this body that, according to the spirit of the Hungarian constitution, the sovereign should consult with, upon all important state affairs, by calling them together in a diet.

' This assembly is composed of magnates, archbishops and bishops, lord lieutenants of the counties, abbots, prelates, deputies of the chapters, deputies from the counties, and deputies from the royal free towns.

' The magnates were originally only the great officers of the

crown, as the Palatine, the supreme judge, the lord marshal, the great cup-bearer, the steward of the household, the master of the horse, &c. but now the princes, counts, and barons are considered as such. Those who pretend to be acquainted with the true spirit of the constitution, regard the reception of the princes, counts, and barons, amongst the magnates, as an innovation. The eldest sons of this great nobility, with the two archbishops, diocesan and titular bishops, with the lord lieutenants of the counties, and keepers of the crown, constitute the first table, or upper house; and the lower house, or second table, is composed of the abbots and prelates, the deputies of the chapters, from each at least two; two or three deputies from each of the two-and-fifty counties into which this kingdom is divided, and a deputy from each of the royal free towns. If the free towns send more than one deputy, they have only one vote; it is so likewise with the deputies of the chapters; and if the members of the upper house cannot attend in person, their deputies sit in the lower house.

‘ Though the diet is thus composed of two tables, or houses, yet they form but one body, as their votes are taken together. It must always be recollected, that the deputies of the counties are only the deputies of the nobility. Even the towns are generally represented by the nobility; but this is their own fault.

‘ The diet, besides being convened upon all great national events, should meet at stated times. Under Matthias Corvinus and Ferdinand I. it was decreed they should be annual. Under Leopold I. it was decreed they should be triennial; and this was confirmed by Charles VI. and is still considered as the constitutional period. But sovereigns and their ministers often wish to get rid of these incumbrances, and lately, from 1764 to 1790, which is twenty-six years, no diet was held, though many important affairs had happened within this period. It ought not to sit more than two months.

‘ This interference of the people in all the weighty affairs of state, is justly considered by them as one of their greatest advantages; but the people here, or, as they are called in their public acts, which are in Latin, *populus*, are, as I have just said, only the great aristocratic body, the nobility and higher clergy. Their exemption from bearing any part of the public burthens they consider as another valuable privilege, of which they ought to be no less jealous. So that the whole taxes for defraying the expences of government must fall immediately upon the productive part of the community; the burghers and peasants.

‘ The nobility, which is composed of titled and untitled, the former of which may be considered as the real nobility, and the latter only as gentlemen, have the exclusive privilege of enjoying all the posts of honour, and of filling all the public offices, and are the exclusive owners of the soil, except what lies within the precincts of the free towns; and a burgher or a peasant may as well think

think of possessing the throne, as of possessing one inch of land, without being first ennobled. Their persons likewise are privileged, except in a few cases, as high treason, murder, &c. They cannot be arrested, till they have been legally tried and convicted. And the simplest kind of knight service is the only duty they owe the state. When summoned by their sovereign, they must defend their country. Their taking the field is called an *insurrectio*, and the high clergy are not exempt. This service, from the frequent wars in which Hungary was engaged, and principally against the Turks, was formerly a pretty severe obligation, for they served as a kind of barrier to the rest of Europe against this ferocious people. As long as the war continued within the limits of their country, they were obliged to maintain themselves; but when the war was carried on abroad, they were maintained by the sovereign. The number of combatants each brought into the field was proportioned to his estate. The archbishop of Gran and the bishop of Erlau brought each two stands of colours, and under each stand a thousand men; the archbishop of Collotza and several bishops a thousand each. In the fatal battle of Mohatch, seven bishops were left on the field. But since standing armies have become general, little use has been made of this mode of defence, and no general *insurrectio* has been summoned for a great length of time, so that the nobility at this day, except now and then by a *don gratuit*, contribute nothing to support the state. So far therefore as they consider only their own immediate advantages, they have reason to be jealous of their privileges; and these are assured them by the constitution: but an immunity to one part of the community, since government must be supported, is an imposition on the others; for since the nobility will bear no share of the expences of government, the heavier these fall on the burghers and peasants.

‘The burghers being under the more particular care of the sovereign, and having their own magistrates, are pretty independent of the nobility, and have only to bear the burthens of government. But this is not the case of the peasants; theirs is a harder lot: for, living upon the estates of the nobility, they are under their immediate care and direction, and may be greatly molested and injured by their severity; though likewise assisted by their protection and generosity.

‘As this part of the community is so very important, by being the most numerous, and the most productive; and as its state generally shows the state of the nation in general, which in its progress in improvement has its different stages pretty constantly accompanied by particular disadvantages, I shall be rather diffuse on it; as by this it becomes a key to the knowledge of the state of the whole society. How unreasonable would it be to expect to find a country powerful and opulent through an improved agriculture, flourishing manufactures,

manufactures, and an extended commerce, whilst the peasantry are in a state of villanage!

‘It appears, however mortifying the thought, that the same hard state has been the lot of the peasantry almost throughout Europe, but at different times; and that it differs not so much in regard to the country, as the time in which it has prevailed. A Polish and an English peasant, how different now in the eighteenth century! Yet the peasants in our happy island *were* once much in the condition they *are* in now in Poland. Under the Saxons, “there was,” as sir William Temple says, “a sort of people in our island in a condition of downright servitude, used and employed in the most servile works, and belonging, both they and their children and effects, to the lord of the soil, like the rest of the cattle or stock upon it.” And upon their fate after the Norman conquest, it is further said, “that these villains belonging principally to lords of manors, were either annexed to the manor or land, or to the person of the lord, and transferable by deed from one owner to another. They could not leave their lord without his permission, but, if they ran away, or were purloined from him, might be claimed and recovered by action, like beasts or other chattels: they held indeed small portions of land by way of sustaining themselves and families; but it was at the mere will of the lord, who might dispossess them whenever he pleased; and it was upon villein service, that is, to carry out dung, to hedge and ditch the lord’s demesnes, and any other the meanest offices; and these services were not only base, but uncertain both as to their time and quantity. A villain could acquire no property either in land or goods: but if he purchased either, the lord might enter upon them, oust the villain, and seize them to his own use; unless he contrived to dispose of them again before the lord had seized them, for the lord had then lost his opportunity.” Such has formerly been the state of our peasantry. “There are not,” says Cowel, “truly any villains now in England, though the law concerning them stands unrepealed.” They have risen by progressive amelioration into copy-holders, and now bear but a small part of the original burthens of this base tenure. “Tenants at will by copy of court roll,” says Bacon, “being in truth bondmen at the beginning, but having obtained freedom of their persons, and gained a custom by use of occupying their lands, they are now called copy-holders, and are so privileged, that the lord cannot put them out, and all through custom.”

‘It is pleasing to consider, however slow the progress of society may be, that the state of this order of it is continually ameliorating: the interest of sovereigns, the interest of religion, the efforts of enlightened men, and even the more humane and enlarged views of the lords of soil, all tend to render the state of the peasantry less debased and oppressed.

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The peasantry of Hungary are farther advanced than their northern neighbours, the Poles and Russians. That hardest of states, the being bound to the soil, yet removable at the will of the proprietor of it, with undetermined labour and dues, is past; and it is some consolation to think, that often, before the law has fixed bounds to the rapacity of the landlords, by determining the dues of the peasant to his lord; custom in some degree has done it. So I believe custom had in some degree determined this in Hungary, before the empress Theresa, in 1764, had made known her *urbarium*; which, though published without the knowledge of the states, has been received as law. Nevertheless, seventeen hundred and sixty-four must be considered as forming an epoch in the history of the amelioration of the state of the peasants, not only by more accurately fixing the reciprocal obligations of the lord and his peasants, but by shewing that the latter were thought worthy of the protection of government. Vol. i, p. 100.

To this account succeeds a translation of the *urbarium*, our remarks on which, as well as on the remaining contents of the volume, we reserve for a future Number.

*A Treatise on the Yellow Fever, as it appeared in the Island of Dominica, in the Years 1793-4-5-6: to which are added, Observations on the Bilious Remittent Fever, on Intermittents, Dysentery, and some other West India Diseases; also, the Chemical Analysis and Medical Properties of the Hot Mineral Waters in the same Island. By James Clarke, M. D. F. R. S. E. and Fellow of the College of Physicians of Edinburgh. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Murray and Highley. 1797.*

THE late fatal ravages of the yellow fever in most of the islands of the West Indies have strongly excited the attention of practitioners in those situations, to examine and investigate the nature of the disease, and method of treatment most adapted to its removal. The Preface to the present tract tells us that these remarks are solely founded on the author's own experience, as he has 'been cautious not to peruse any publication on the same subject.' How far Dr. Clarke's observations may be entitled to more respect on this account, we cannot pretend to say; but it certainly appears a little extraordinary, that a writer should plead ignorance of what has been done by others, as an apology for the introduction of his own remarks.

But whether the writings of other physicians on this disease have been consulted or not, the practice of Dr. Clarke agrees, in many respects, with that which they have lately recommended;

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mended; though his opinion of the nature of the disease is materially different.

The first attack of the fever is thus described by this writer—

‘ This fever sometimes begins with a slight rigor or chilly fit, rarely with shivering, succeeded by a violent head-ach and vomiting; but more frequently it comes on with lassitude, inclination to vomit, uneasiness at the pit of the stomach, and a severe pain in the back and forehead. The first attack is generally in the night, or towards morning; and very soon after, the eyes appear much inflamed, the face remarkably flushed, and an uncommon redness about the neck and breast succeeds. They cannot bear the light; but turn their faces from it, or cover their heads, and avoid it by every means.

‘ The fever comes on generally without any previous indisposition, seizing the patient in a very sudden manner; but some complained of lassitude and head-ach the day before. The pulse seldom beats more than 90 in a minute; and the heat was never so great as it is in the hot fit of an intermittent. The sick had not much desire for drink, and the tongue was not foul or white. What was vomited up during the first twelve hours, was only the contents of the stomach before, or what had been drank after the first attack. Bile was seldom discharged till eighteen or twenty-four hours after the first seizure; but about that time or soon after, it became of a deep yellow colour, then green, and gradually darker, till at last the black vomit made its appearance; which happened in a few cases as early as in thirty-six hours, most commonly in forty-eight, in some not till the third or fourth day, and even as late as the fifth or sixth, although this occurred rarely.’ p. 6.

In the symptoms and progress of the disease, as here detailed, there appears to be nothing extraordinary. It is merely a history of the ordinary appearances and course of the complaint. The division of the disorder into different stages is not probably a matter of much moment; for, in fevers of great debility, it will, we are persuaded, be almost impossible to mark the termination of one or beginning of the other.

Dr. Clarke contends that this disorder is not infectious, in opposition, we believe, to most of the writers that have lately described this species of fever. His arguments are not, indeed, satisfactory; but we may lay them before the reader—

‘ I have been informed’ (says he) ‘ that it has been considered, by some authors, as an imported and very infectious disease; but in this island it did not appear to be either imported or infectious. The very few instances which seemed to indicate contagion, I think may be accounted for on other principles.—Some inhabitants who  
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had been accustomed to breathe a cool healthy air in high situations in the country, were sometimes attacked after a visit to town, in the same manner as new-comers from Europe and America, who never had been in the West Indies before; the reason of which will be inquired into hereafter.—Those who had resided long in town, or near the sea-side, were not attacked with it.—The physicians and surgeons who visited the sick, and the nurses who attended them constantly, were not infected, nor did there occur a single instance of one of them being seized with this fever for these three years that I have remained in the island, since it broke out; altho' no prophylactic, or precaution of any sort whatever, was made use of to counteract or avoid contagion. I am therefore of opinion, that this terrible disease was not imported into this or any other of these islands, or into America, but that it was produced from natural causes. I do not contend, however, that it did not become contagious in some measure afterwards, in some of the towns, ships, or other places, in proportion to the degree of concentration of the vitiated air in them, both in this climate and in America.' p. 22.

In his plan of cure, the author is not less extraordinary than in his reasoning on the nature of the disease. He considers the fever as having a highly septic tendency; yet it is to be removed by means of the free use of mercurial remedies. *Æther*, camphor, musk, and opium, were only held 'in the light of collateral aids.' 'Our greatest dependence,' says the author, 'or, in the nautical language, our sheet-anchor, was mercury.'

Just after this we are, however, told that antiseptics, tonics, wine, and nourishment, were absolutely necessary; and that, without these, his favourite remedy would probably have failed of success.

'I was led to the use of calomel' (says the author) 'in the first stage, on account of the tardy and ineffectual operation of other purgatives, as before mentioned. At that period, the necessity of purging seemed to be clearly pointed out, from the evidently violent determination of the circulation to the head. In the second stage, the determination appeared to be equally violent to the liver, which was then the principal seat of the disease.' p. 37.

And at p. 41, he asserts that—

'When called early in the second stage of the disease, we found that by the use of mercury, a steady perseverance in the antiseptic plan, good nursing and care, many of our patients recovered, and some even after the black-vomit came on, as was mentioned before, in whom however the other mortal symptoms, such as vio-



lent hæmorrhage from the nose, hiccup, and suppression of urine, were wanting.' P. 41.

Here we are assured that patients recovered even 'after the black vomit came on,' though the doctor had before informed us, that, in *all* his practice, he only recollected four patients that recovered after this symptom had made its appearance.

After this sample of the author's practical directions, we may consider his inquiry concerning the nature of the remote causes of the disease; though this investigation should, in strict propriety, have preceded his method of cure, as it is mostly necessary to understand the causes of diseases before we attempt their removal.

On this subject the doctor takes a somewhat new ground of argument: he tells us that the vitiated state of the atmosphere is the remote cause of this fever.

'By the excessive and long continued heat of the sun,' (says he) 'the state of the atmosphere appears to be so much vitiated in all warm climates, that if some agent or means were not employed from time to time by nature to rectify it, these countries would become unfit for the residence of human beings.

'Thunder, heavy rains, and violent gales of wind seem to be the agents for this purpose; which are the causes of restoring that due mixture of parts to the atmosphere, so indispensably necessary for the support of health.' P. 56.

On the manner in which this is effected, the doctor's reasoning is as follows—

'This derangement of the component parts of the atmosphere, was probably effected by the strong light and intense heat of the sun having disengaged, or formed some combination with its vital part, or a certain portion of it, which being so united and rarefied, would rise far above that stratum of air, in which we, in lower situations, breathe, leaving the mephitic or heavier part near to the surface of the earth. The loss of a small portion of vital air, would render this lower stratum very unfit for respiration, and of course very unwholesome to live in.—The atmosphere of this town became probably vitiated in this manner by degrees, and therefore did not affect the health of the inhabitants either suddenly, or very considerably. The common remittent fever, dysentery, and other bilious complaints, had, however, begun to show themselves, previous to the appearance of the yellow fever.' P. 61.

It unfortunately happens that we cannot discover any thing like facts, in support of the *disoxygenated* state of the atmosphere. But, independent of this, it does not seem a very philosophical conclusion, since numerous processes of oxygenation

nation are every-where provided, and continually going on, in order to supply the necessary demands of that principle. If, however, the yellow fever had originated from this source, the author's method of cure ought to have been conducted on very different grounds; he ought to have administered those substances freely in which oxygen is found in large quantities loosely combined. This, however, does not appear to have formed any part of his practice.

But as medical theories and medical practice are not unfrequently at variance, we may afford another specimen of our author's talent for philosophical investigation and pathological reasoning—

‘ A deranged state of the atmosphere, as mentioned before, seemed to me to be the first cause that excited this mortal disease in our island; and as it prevailed in the different towns of the other islands, the more they were crowded with strangers, I am inclined to believe, that it proceeded from the same cause in them all, aided, and perhaps put in action, by the great concourse of people in towns exposed to so much heat: New-comers from Europe, in high health, were soonest affected by this impure air; others, who had resided some time in unwholesome places in America, and in the French islands, resisted its baleful influence much longer; and perhaps, by the extraordinary, or immoderate accumulation of it, in some West India and American towns, even the old inhabitants were sometimes affected with this fever. In this way, many fevers of the typhus kind may become more or less epidemic, which are not in themselves contagious, as is always the case in the jail and ship fevers. I believe the air did never arrive at that contagious degree of accumulated impurity in this island: for when patients labouring under this fever, were removed to high situations for the sake of breathing a cooler and purer air, and who, notwithstanding, fell victims to it, the people about them were never infected, nor did the disease ever prevail afterwards in such places.—And I have been assured that this was exactly the case in America. There appears to have been such an extensive and very peculiar deranged state of the atmosphere in the towns in these islands, and in North America, that it is more probable, this disease was produced by this general cause, breaking out nearly at the same time in different places, than that it originated only in one or two towns, and was carried from thence by infection to others, by either persons or goods, as has been supposed. The regular return, and continuance, of this fever in the months of July, August, and September, every year, more or less, since its first appearance in these islands, and in the towns in America, seems to me to argue strongly in favour of this opinion. From these facts and observations I am of opinion, that in all hot climates, where a great depravity of

the atmosphere is produced by the causes already mentioned, and where its natural purifiers are wanting, this fever will break out in such places, on the arrival of a great number of strangers, more especially if they come from a cold country. If such impure air is allowed to be the remote cause of this fever, as appears from what has been said; the air in respiration, in this case, not having a sufficient quantity of oxygene, may occasion a deranged state of the fluids, which I conceive to be the immediate stimulus or excitement, or what may be termed the proximate cause of this fever. And if the biliary secretion be intended for the discharge of the degenerated lymph and crassamentum of the blood, as Dr. Maclurg thinks, in his dissertation on the bile; the great redundancy and degeneracy of the bile in this fever may be easily accounted for on that principle. This derangement may be the cause of an increased determination of the fluids to the liver, and as the morbid animal process gains ground, which it does every hour, if not opposed by powerful remedies, the liver becomes more and more distended with blood, and the biliary secretion is increased and hurried on in such a rapid manner through the extremities of the *pori biliiari*, that it resembles grounds of coffee rather than bile, which, upon a narrow inspection with a magnifying glass, seemed to be black dissolved blood, floating in lymph or mucus. When the blood, dissolved by this morbid process, meets with any obstruction, it gushes from the nose and mouth in almost a colourless state, and in such prodigious quantities, that the patient soon sinks into a state of total dissolution.' p. 63.

We have here a set of bold conjectures indeed; but we could have wished, for the sake of the author, that they had been equally supported by facts. Few, we believe, who have examined the best writers on typhus fever, and still less those who have had much experience in the treatment of the disease, will agree with Dr. Clarke.

The position, that the yellow fever is liable to be produced by the influx of a number of strangers, under the particular circumstances of the atmosphere here described, is not entitled to more respect. We know that in Philadelphia the fever continued to rage with unabated violence, notwithstanding a great part of the inhabitants had left the city.

The *stimulus* of a deranged state of the fluids is a jargon from which no conclusion can be drawn; and the observations concerning the liver are not more valuable; the matter admits of a very different explanation, as may be seen by consulting the late writers on the disorder.

In order to fill up the pamphlet, Dr. Clarke has added a few cursory observations on bilious remittent fever, intermittent fever, typhus fever, dysentery, dry belly-ach, cholera morbus,

morbus, and tetanus. On these, we however find very little new or valuable information.

A short examination of the medicinal properties of the hot mineral waters in the island of Dominica is also subjoined; and in an Appendix, Mr. Brande has introduced a few experiments on a new kind of bark, the *cinchona brachycarpa*.

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*The Rural Economy of the West of England: including Devonshire, and Parts of Somersetshire, Dorsetshire, and Cornwall. Together with Minutes in Practice. By Mr. Marshall. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.*

MR. Marshall is already well known to our readers as a judicious observer and able delineator of rural affairs. In these volumes, we meet with the same diligence, accuracy, and discernment, that marked his progress in the examination of the rural economy of other parts of the country. In some instances, indeed, the rapidity of his movements seems to have left too little leisure for investigation. The variety of objects that surround him, are not always fully considered. In others he is more successful—his researches are more satisfactory and useful; and it is but in very few, we believe, that his conclusions are not supported by facts.

Writers are too frequently biassed by particular modes or habits of inquiry: and we discover this to be sometimes the case with Mr. Marshall. Every thing gives way to systematic arrangement. We also observe in our author a strong propensity to trace and unfold the origin of remote and particular customs or practices, while he but partially notices, and sometimes even totally neglects, the reasons of their utility or inutility. These are certainly trifling faults; but the publication before us is of too great importance to permit us to pass even small errors without notice.

The reflections on the proper divisions of counties are certainly just; and, if generally attended to, would greatly facilitate the acquisition of agricultural information.

The collection of information on subjects of husbandry, by means of the surveys of whole counties, is certainly objectionable in some respects. In this way a local practice is liable to be taken as that of the whole, and a multiplicity of facts and observations are discovered and brought together, which frequently contradict and oppose each other, because drawn from sources under different circumstances of situation and management. The object of Mr. Marshall's plan is, however, somewhat different from that of the surveys of counties. One is the collecting of facts, with a view to the

22. *Marshall's Rural Economy of the West of England.*

establishment of a system of husbandry,—the other, the examining and recording of particular modes of practice, so as to afford a correct register of the rural economy of a country.

Mr. Marshall satisfactorily accounts for his apparent inactivity, in the following passage—

‘A period of almost six years has elapsed, since the publication of the *Rural Practice of the Midland Counties*. The prosecution of the general work, of which that publication makes a part, has not, however, been neglected, during this lapse of time. The practices of the more western counties have been registered; and are here offered to the public. And those of the southern counties have been examined and collected.’ P. XXV.

The sum of what has been already accomplished, and what is still in the views of this indefatigable observer, is thus stated—

‘I have, therefore’ (says he) ‘at length obtained a general view of the established practices of England. And, also, I have had a partial view of those of Scotland; it is not my intention to extend my remarks to that part of the island, or to Wales, until I have, in some measure, rounded my plan, with respect to England.’ Vol. I. P. XXVI.

In the execution of the present work, Mr. Marshall’s principal station was that of the valley of the Tamer, the eligibility and advantages of which may be estimated from the author’s description—

‘There is no other individual station’ (says he) ‘in which I could have commanded, so well, the two counties of Devon and Cornwall; and at the same time, the fertile district of the South Hams,—“the garden of Devonshire,”—of which distinguished district the valley of the Tamer forms, in reality, a part.’

‘Beside, in the valley of the Tamer, and on the magnificent farm on which I resided, the very first in the county, I possessed the most favourable opportunity, that either circumstances or choice had to give, of studying the Devonian practice, in all its branches, and in its almost pristine purity.’ Vol. I. P. XXVI.

The district with which our author commences his examination, is that of West Devonshire, including the eastern parts of Cornwall. It is rather extraordinary that in this part of the county, notwithstanding its southern situation, the harvest is comparatively late. Taking the par of years, Mr. Marshall thinks we may fairly estimate West Devonshire ten days or a fortnight later than the midland district, which lies more than two degrees of latitude, or 150 statute miles farther

farther to the north. This, says he, is 'a proof that climate and climate have not an immediate connection.'

Mr. Marshall's reflections on the size of farms, the mode of tenancing them, the wages of labourers, and the best means of securing the advantages of apprenticed servants, are sensible, and display an acute and benevolent mind.

The circumstances attending the driving of ox-teams have struck us in other counties; but what are the peculiar effects of the plaintive notes of the plough-boy in these cases, we cannot exactly say: the occurrence is curiously introduced by our author.

'The style of driving an ox team, here, is observable; indeed, cannot pass unnoticed by a stranger. The language, though in a great degree peculiar to the country, does not arrest the attention; but the tone, or rather tune, in which it is delivered. It resembles, with great exactness, the chantings, or recitative of the cathedral service. The plow boy chants the counter tenor, with unabated ardour through the day; the plowman throwing in, at intervals, his hoarse notes. It is understood that this chanting march, which may sometimes be heard to a considerable distance, encourages and animates the team, as the music of a marching army, or the song of the rowers. Let this be as it may, I have never seen so much cheerfulness attending the operation of plowing, anywhere, as in Devonshire.' Vol. I, p. 216.

The implements of husbandry in this district are rather remarkable for peculiarities in their construction, than their superior convenience and utility. The alteration in the draught-iron of the ox's yoke must, however, be exempt from this charge, as it is unquestionably an useful improvement.

However far one part of a country may be behind another in point of rural improvements,—and this district is certainly much behind many others,—there is scarcely any one in which the established course of practice does not afford some useful hint for the extension of the science of agriculture. On this ground, we present the reader with Mr. Marshall's account of the ordinary course of practice in West-Devonshire—

'It has been mentioned, as the practice of this district, to keep the cultured lands, alternately, in ley grasses and arable crops. The latter have long been fixed and invariable; but the number of years allowed for the duration of the former depends on circumstances, and the judgment of individuals. Speaking generally of the district, more than half of its cultured lands are in temporary ley: besides the perennial leys or meadow lands; and beside the rough pasture grounds that are not under regular cultivation.

‘Dividing the arable lands into ten parts, five of these parts may, in giving a general idea of their arrangement, be said to be in ley or pasture grounds, one under preparation for wheat, one in wheat, one in barley, one in oats, and one in ray grass and clover; following each other in the succession, in which they are here set down: namely,—pasture,—partial fallow, or beat-burning,—wheat,—barley,—oats,—herbage.

‘This has been the ordinary course of management, during the last fifty or sixty years; during which length of time, I understand, herbage has been, more or less, cultivated: a circumstance which does credit to the rural management of the country.’ Vol. i. p. 135.

And though the cultivation of potatoes and turnip crops has sometimes been introduced, they have been chiefly grown on ley grounds, not having even yet, obviously advantageous as the practice is, been cultivated after wheat or oats, as a fallow crop for barley and ley herbage. Such is the slow progress of improvement in the practice of husbandry.

The account of the state of tillage in this district impresses us with no very high opinion of the West Devonshire ploughman.

On the practice of pating and burning, it is more difficult to form an opinion. The statements on this subject are different, according to the different views of the writers. It would be a task of some difficulty, but highly useful, to ascertain experimentally, under what particular circumstances of soil, situation, &c. this process may be safely and advantageously employed. At least, until the matter be settled in something more than a theoretical way, we may in vain expect a judicious application of the practice.

Mr. Marshall’s opinion on the subject is, that—

‘From what he has seen, in this country, of the effects of sod-burning, he is more and more convinced, that, in many cases, and under discrete management, it forms a valuable part of British husbandry; and may become an instrument of real improvement, in places where it is not, at present, known; especially in bringing the waste lands of the island into a proper course of cultivation.

‘Political agriculture appears to me to be highly interested, in the continuance of this practice; which men, who farm in closets, seem desirous to extinguish. But let them theorize with caution; and go forth into the field of practice, before they venture to draw inferences, which may prove subversive of the public good they doubtless intend to promote.

‘Men of landed property, however, ought to regard this practice, with a watchful eye. Through its means, a tenant has it in his power to enrich himself, at the expence of his landlord. And

although, while he is doing this, he may be enriching the public; yet proprietors, considered as such, have an undoubted right to guard their property. But let them not, by an ill judged and narrow-minded policy, injure, at once, the public, their tenants, and themselves. It may be prudent to restrict tenants, in certain cases, from the use of this practice; but to debar them from it, in all cases, would be equally impolitic, as to restrict them from the use of calcareous earths; or, as is too often the case, to debar them from the use of the plow, where the application of it would be beneficial to themselves, to their tenants, and to the community. Vol. i. p. 151.

On the wheat management in this district, we think somewhat differently from our author; it appears to us to be equally bad and laborious. The degree of improvement in tillage, obtained by this practice, is more than counterbalanced by the labour required to produce it. The sum of human labour under this system, however cheap and plentiful it may be, is so very great, that it must occupy a portion of time that might be more advantageously employed in other operations of husbandry. The saving of seed we consider as a trifling circumstance, indeed, when put in comparison with the saving of manual labour.

We agree more cordially with Mr. Marshall on the use of watering lands; the practice is, however, at present, far from being pursued scientifically. Chemistry has had too little share in this, as well as many other operations in agriculture. A chemical analysis, conducted in the way mentioned by our author, would go a great length in enabling us to apply waters with certainty and effect.

Neither in the preparation of fruit liquors, nor the rearing of cattle, in this district, is there any thing of much importance. The practice, in both cases, is inferior to that of many other parts of the kingdom.

The remarks on poultry are just; it is certain that they can only be rendered highly productive by good food and a suitable degree of warmth.

In describing the practice of the South-Hams district, Mr. Marshall's chief station is Ivybridge.

The principal differences in the farm management of this division are briefly stated in the subsequent passage—

‘ The only observable deviation, in the general management of the South Hams, from what may be styled the genuine Danmonian husbandry, lies in the proportion of corn crops to temporary ley grounds, on the lands that are subjected to an alternancy of corn and grass.

‘ In West Devonshire, the regular distribution has been broken,



in, eggs &c., by the introduction of turneps and potatoes. In the South Hams, the breach has been made still wider, by the introduction of clover leys for wheat, and the practice of sowing wheat after turneps.

How long these practices have been introduced, I did not learn. But from their not having yet reached the more western district, they are probably of modern date. And although I observed them in several instances, they are probably not yet introduced into the ordinary management, even of this district.

The crops of the South Hams are the three corn crops of wheat, barley, and oats. The pulses are sparingly, if at all, cultivated in the district. Beans, at least, are imported, in quantity. Some turneps, a few potatoes, and cultivated herbage, form the rest of its arable crops. Vol. i. p. 204.

In a future number, we hope to travel with our author over the remaining districts, and examine the practical conclusions which he has drawn in the annexed minutes.

*The History of Greece. By William Mitford, Esq. Vol. III. 4to 11s 12d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.*

THE third volume of Mr. Mitford's Greece calls upon us to continue our review of a work, which in August 1784, and in July 1790, has already engaged our attention. Age certainly has not chilled the ardour of the historian in his laborious undertaking: and the present volume is characterized by the same indefatigable research and accurate investigation as have marked those which precede it.

It opens with the twenty-first chapter, which contains a description of the Athenian democracy, judicature, and revenue; details the measures and views of the supreme council of Thirty; the death of Theramenes, and restoration of the democracy by Thrasybulus; and Mr. Mitford has commenced his account of the public revenue of Athens, by an observation which cannot be too strongly impressed on the statesmen of modern ages—

It may be held as an unfailling political maxim, that where the property of individuals is insecure, the public revenue will be ill-administered. Perhaps Solon, little foreseeing that his commonwealth would want, did not desire that it should have, a great revenue. A sovereign people, indeed would not easily be persuaded to pay taxes; but some provision for public expences would be necessary. Attica fortunately possessed, in the silver-mines of Laureium, an advantage unknown in any other part of proper Greece. Those mines were public property; but individuals were allowed to work

work them for their private benefit, paying only into the public treasury a twenty-fourth of the ore obtained. This was the great source of the regular public revenue of Athens. The sacred olive-trees, tho' the income from them could be but small, were however looked to as a second branch. These, scattered among the lands of individuals in various parts of Attica, were consecrated, together with the ground immediately around them (perhaps originally by the policy of the government, for their security) to the goddess protectress of Athens; the fruit was sold by auction, under the direction of the court of Areiopagus, and the price was paid into the treasury. A third branch of the Athenian revenue consisted in the rents of public lands and houses, mostly acquired from individuals by forfeiture.

But among the little states of Greece, the first purpose of a public revenue was generally less to supply public than private needs; less to support civil and military establishments, than to provide a maintenance for citizens without property, without industry, and perhaps without objects for industry. Solon however was anxious to promote industry among his people. He desired rather that they should earn their livelihood by labor than be maintained in idleness; and, not, with the credulous inexperience and deficient foresight of some modern political speculators, supposing democracy naturally economical, he proposed to check its wildness and extravagance by committing to his court of Areiopagus a controlling power over all issues from the treasury. But the revolutions under Peisistratus, and still much more that under Cleisthenes, deranged his wise institutions: the passions of the multitude and the interest of demagogues met; and, before the Persian invasion, we find the whole revenue from the silver-mines distributed among the people. This extravagance was remedied, as we have seen, by the extraordinary address of Themistocles: who, with the advantage of favoring circumstances, persuaded the Many to resign that revenue for public purposes, and hence acquired the means to make Athens the greatest maritime power to that time seen in the world.

We are informed by what able statesman, or in what public exigency, the Athenians were persuaded to submit to a tax, in the manner of the modern customs, of a fiftieth of the value upon all goods imported, and upon some exports. Early in the Peloponnesian war we find it familiar; as well as a small toll, or a kind of excise duty, on goods sold in the market. The two, forming together a very slight burthen, were the only regular and general taxes at any time paid by the Athenian people.

The deficiency of a public revenue, arising from sources so scanty, was in some degree supplied by an imposition, in the manner of a poll-tax, on the metics, those numerous free residents in Attica who were not Athenian citizens. This however seems to have been not in its amount oppressive, any more than in its principle

ciple unreasonable. It was the consideration for the better protection, or the hope of better protection (so deficient were the Grecian governments) which Athens had at least sometimes afforded, than the cities whence the metics or their forefathers had migrated. Those strangers, so enjoying many municipal rights in Attica, were not Greeks only, from various cities, but Lydians, Phrygians, Syrians, and other barbarians. Many were traders or manufacturers: they seem indeed to have composed the great body of traders and manufacturers of Athens; and through the superior population of that city, the extent of its dominion, and the protection for maritime communication which naval empire afforded to its subjects, they could carry on their business there upon a greater scale, and with more certain profit, than in any other situation in Greece.

‘ But tho the regular taxes, which the Athenian people would consent to pay, for the support of that government of which they held in their own hands the immediate sovereignty, were so light, yet, irregular and partial taxes, in their principle inimical to equal freedom, and every way worthy of the most despotic government, were as the materials of storm in a lowering sky, threatening always all, but falling chiefly on the higher ranks of citizens. It seems likely to have been when the poorer Many were persuaded to make the patriotic surrender of their dividends from the silvermines for the building of a fleet, that the wealthier Few undertook at their own charge to equip the ships when built. There was an apparent fairness and liberality on both sides in such a compromise. But as the balances of Solon’s government were successively overthrown, and the popular will became the instrument of arbitrary power in the hands of the demagogue of the day, the practice, grown into law, for individuals to equip the fleet, degenerated into a source of grievous oppression. Regulated by no certain principle, the wealthier, or those reputed the wealthier citizens, were annually appointed by arbitrary nomination (in the Peloponnesian war to the number of four hundred) to be responsible from their private fortunes, some singly, some in partnership with others, for the equipment of a ship of war. Intrigue, and popular favor or popular displeasure, decided on whom the burthen should be light, and whom it should oppress. Yet whether from a natural sense of justice, or some remaining prejudice in favor of the old Athenian constitution, the person who equipped the trireme was generally allowed to command it, or to name the commander.

‘ Another irregular tax, not unknown where single despots have ruled, with the improper name of free-gift, was frequently exacted by the despotic democracy of Athens. This, a tax also upon the higher ranks only, and perfectly arbitrary, could not fail to become partial and oppressive in extreme. Among taxes partaking of the nature of free-gifts, may also be reckoned the requisition for the rich to exhibit, at their own expence, theatrical entertainments, and

other costly shows, for the amusement of the people; taxes severely felt by the higher ranks, tho contributing nothing to the public revenue or the public force.' P. 10.

The twenty-second chapter is occupied by illustrations from the orators and philosophers of the civil history of Athens, and the condition of the Athenian people, between the ages of Pericles and Demosthenes, with a summary view of the rise of philosophy and literature in Greece, and an account of the sophists, among whom Socrates is peculiarly distinguished—

'The profession of sophist had not long flourished, and no Athenian had acquired fame in any branch of philosophy, when the singular talents, and singular manners and pursuits of Socrates son of Sophroniscus engaged public attention. The father was a statuary, and is not mentioned as very eminent in his profession; but, as a man, he seems to have been respected among the most eminent of the commonwealth: he lived in particular intimacy with Lyfimachus, son of the great Aristides. Inheriting a very scanty fortune, Socrates had a mind wholly intent upon the acquisition and communication of knowledge. The sublime principles of theology, taught by Anaxagoras, made an early impression upon him. They led him to consider what should be the duty, owed by man, to such a Being as Anaxagoras described his Creator; and it struck him that, if the providence of God interfered in the government of this world, the duty of man to man, little considered by poets or priests as any way connected with religion, and hitherto almost totally neglected by philosophers, must be a principal branch of the duty of man to God. It struck him farther, that with the gross defects which he saw in the religion, the morality, and the governments of Greece, tho the favorite inquiries of the philosophers, concerning the nature of the Deity, the formation of the world, the laws of the heavenly bodies, might, while they amused, perhaps also enlarge and improve the minds of a few speculative men; yet the investigation of the social duties was infinitely more important, and might be infinitely more useful, to mankind in general. Indowed by nature with a most discriminating mind, and a singularly ready eloquence, he directed his utmost attention to that investigation; and when, by reflection, assisted and proved by conversation among the sophists and other able men, he had decided an opinion, he communicated it, not in the way of precept, but by proposing a question, and, in the course of interrogatory argument, leading his hearers to the just conclusion, P. 89.

In the twenty-third chapter Mr. Mitford traces the connection of Grecian and Persian politics; illustrates the character and unfolds the views of Cyrus; and follows, after the death

death of that prince, with unwearied accuracy, the march of the ten thousand in their celebrated retreat from the banks of the Euphrates to the shores of the Hellespont.

After describing, in the twenty-fourth chapter, the desultory hostilities of the Spartans against Persia, and the exploits of Agesilaus in Asia, Mr. Mitford, in his twenty-fifth chapter, gives an account of the general confederacy against Lacedæmon: enlarges on the improvement of the art of war under the Athenian general Iphicrates, and points out the views which dictated the memorable peace of Antalcidas, by which all the cities on the continent of Asia, with the isles of Clazomenæ and Cyprus, were restored to the dominion of the Persians.

‘Agesilaus, it is evident, approved the treaty of Antalcidas, and it should seem that Xenophon saw nothing disgraceful in his concurrence in the measure. Certainly it would be difficult for those who have declaimed most vehemently against it, to show how peace could have been given to Greece in any other manner. The abandoning of the Asian Greeks to subjection under Persia, is indeed a specious ground of reproach. It was unquestionably a surrender of the proudest and fairest claim of glory that Lacedæmon perhaps ever acquired. But this seems not justly imputed as a peculiar crime or dishonor to Antalcidas. A similar, or rather a more disgraceful dereliction of the cause of the Asian Greeks, occurred on the conclusion of the Peloponnesian war. They were found by the Lacedæmonians under the protection (so half Greece would have termed it, but at worst under the dominion) of a Grecian people; they were left by them to the mercy of barbarians, in subjection to the Persian empire. But, on the present occasion, the Lacedæmonians had to alledge, that not they, but their enemies, had betrayed the common cause of the nation, by producing the necessity for recalling Agesilaus from his glorious exertions, which had restored the Asian Greeks to independency.’ P. 316.

The twenty-sixth chapter contains the rise of the Theban power, to the battle of Leuctra; the twenty-seventh the state of Thessaly; the views, usurpation, and death of Jason of Pheræ; and the embassy of Pelopidas to the court of Persia; the twenty-eighth concludes the volume, with a detail of the constitution of Achaia; the history of Euphron, tyrant of Sicyon; the invasion of Laconia; the victory and death of Epaminondas at Mantinea, and an interesting view of the progress of science, arts, and commerce.

‘For a complete picture of Greece, in this age, if memorials remained to direct the pencil, a considerable extension of bright colors and fair forms, no doubt, should find place among the gloomy tints

tiats and horrid shapes, that have been transmitted as the principal constituents. But, as in landscape, rugged mountains, and pathless rocks, and wasteful torrents, every work of nature rude, and every work of man in ruin, most engage the notice of the painter, and offer the readiest hold for the touches of his art, so in the political world, war, and sedition, and revolution, destruction of armies, massacre of citizens, and wreck of governments, force themselves upon the attention of the annalist, and are carefully reported to posterity; while the growth of commerce, and arts, and science, all that gives splendor to empire, elegance to society, and livelihood to millions, like the extended capital and the boundless champain, illumined by the sun's midday glare, pleases, dazzles, bewilders, offers a maze of delightful objects, charms rather than fixes the attention, and giving no prominences, no contrast, no strongly characterized parts, leaves the writer, like the painter, unable to choose out of an expanse and a variety, whose magnificent whole is far too great for the limited stretch of literary or picturesk design.

‘ Nevertheless among the playful sketches and incidental remarks of antient writers, we find testimony to the prosperity of some of the extensive settlements of the Grecian people. The western colonies are objects for separate consideration. Confining our attention here to the eastern, we may observe that Cnidus, on the Carian coast, appears to have shared in the prosperity of the neighbouring island of Cos. The Cnidian Venus, by Praxiteles, which description remaining seems to mark as the model of more than one antient statue preserved to us, tho that known by the name of the Medicean, first in merit, is singular in fame, was through all antiquity esteemed among the most admirable efforts of the art of sculpture. It seems to follow, were other testimony wanting, that the community was flourishing, which could adorn its temples with the most finished works of artists the most eminent known to fame. In quiet, under Persian sovereignty, prosperity seems to have been extensive among the Grecian towns on the Asiatic shore. Halicarnassus, the seat of the Carian princes, for its flourishing state, might deserve to be better known to us; and the Ionian and Æolic cities, allowed the management of their own affairs in peace, while they paid the settled tribute to the Persian government, and only forbidden war and disturbance, produced philosophers, and artists, and wealthy merchants, tho they offered no statesmen or generals for the notice of history.’ P. 514.

Though we have already bestowed our commendations on the industry and judgment of Mr. Mitford, yet, in the faithful discharge of our duty, we cannot help expressing a wish that a work of intrinsic merit had not been subjected to that deviation from modern spelling, which occurs throughout this, and which cannot be adopted without exposing the author to the imputation of singularity and affectation.

CRIT. REV. VOL. XX. May, 1797.

D. A Dic-

*A Dictionary of Surgery; or, the young Surgeon's Pocket Assistant.* By Benjamin Lara, &c. &c. 12mo. 6s. Bound. Ridgway. 1796.

THE commodious form of a dictionary, it must be allowed, is frequently a means of making knowledge more accessible, even to readers not of a very cursory description; and we have, on that account, looked with approbation, and even with respect, on the proverbial drudgery which in most instances gives birth to such sort of compilations. But in the selection of articles for such a work, and especially where its dimensions, as in the present instance, are very limited, great circumspection and judgment are necessary, to reject what is superfluous or erroneous, to condense what is diffuse, and to add what is new. If we judge Mr. Lara's dictionary by these rules, we are apprehensive it will make no very advantageous figure; for we find, in many of the articles, inaccuracies which cannot but mislead instead of informing those young practitioners for whose use the work is avowedly designed.

Thus we are told under the article '*FURUNCULUS*,' that 'a boil or bile is a *phlegmonous humour* which commonly terminates in a suppuration of a peculiar kind,' &c. What idea is conveyed by the words *phlegmonous humour*? and how will this accord with the doctrines recently impressed on the reader's mind from what he has heard in the medical schools in which he was educated?

'It generally' (continues the author) 'suppurates spontaneously, and breaks open at first on its top, or the most pointed part, when some drops of pus, like that from an abscess, comes out; after which the germ, or what is commonly called the core, is seen; this core is a purulent substance, but so thick and tenacious, that it appears like a solid body, which may be drawn out in the shape of a cylinder, like the pith of elder, sometimes to the length of an inch.'

This 'germ,' or 'core,' or 'purulent substance,' Mr. Lara should rather have described as a *slough*, formed, as Mr. Hunter has taught, of the cellular membrane of the part, destroyed by the previous inflammation. From the same great source Mr. Lara might also have learned that to promote suppuration, at least in the early state of this disease, is a great error in practice; since, by counteracting the inflammation in the first instance, the tedious and painful process consequent on a neglect of those means, may, in most instances, be avoided.

It is requisite in a work of this sort, we conceive, not to adopt errors, even though they happen to be the errors of great men. This principle, however, we find Mr. Lara has violated

violated in a great number of instances: but in none, perhaps, more palpably than in the adoption of Dr. Cullen's idle division of the hydrophobia into two species, viz. the hydrophobia *rabiosa*, and the hydrophobia *simplex*: in the former of which the patient is said to show 'a desire of biting,' that does not take place in the latter. It is foreign to our purpose at present to remark on this absurd distinction, which can only have arisen from a culpable credulity in its great author, and not (we will take upon us to say) from an attention to facts. An error, much more injurious in its tendency, which we find in the same article, is the delusive language in which Mr. Lara speaks of the means by which, in hydrophobia, 'the cure is effected.'

'Agreeable' (says he) 'to the nature of the immediate cause, the cure is effected only by such means as destroy nervous or spasmodic irritation, or that by a specific property destroys the peculiar acrimony which causes the disorder. Of the first, opium' is the only one to be depended on; and of the second, mercury in such portions as to excite a pyralism, is the approved method.'

Shortly after, he proceeds—

'A late foreign writer says, that if vinegar is given to a pint a day, divided into three doses, one in the morning, another at noon, the third at night; it effects a cure. On the contrary, some others suppose the poison communicated by a mad-dog, is of an acid nature, and propose absorbent alkaline earths, as chalk, bole, &c. for the cure.'

Does the experience of Mr. Lara warrant him in insinuating that these remedies, of which he speaks so complacently, or (we will add) any other remedies under the canopy of heaven, are able to cure the hydrophobia after the poison which occasions it has been absorbed? If he answers in the negative, with what propriety does he instil into the young practitioner, whom he professes to instruct, a confidence so dangerous to those on whom his art is to be exercised? Why does he not rather join in destroying the too prevailing disposition to trust to remedies of imaginary efficacy, in a disease so certainly fatal, and thus prevail on those who may hereafter be the subjects of so shocking a calamity, to submit early to the only means of their security—the use of the knife?

We shall conclude our remarks on the work before us, by candidly admitting, that, among much that demands censure, we also find much that is entitled to praise. Had the author taken less from that mixture of old and new-fashioned doctrines, Motherby's Dictionary, he had escaped a great deal of obsolete and unworthy matter. Where he has compiled

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from



from Hunter, Cullen, Pott, and other valuable modern writers, he excels in some respects those who have written on a larger scale. The introduction of formulæ is also convenient, and may, in a future impression, be valuably augmented from the new edition of the *Pharmacopœia Chirurgica*.

*Wives as they were, and Maids as they are. A Comedy, in five Acts. Performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden. By Mrs. Inchbald. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1797.*

WHOEVER has attended to the progress of the comic drama from the days of Wycherly, Congreve, and Vanbrugh, must perceive that a very remarkable change has taken place since that period in the taste of the public. The plots were then complex, generally embracing one if not two under-plots; they are now simple.—The plays, and even the scenes and speeches, were then long, and sometimes prolix; they are now little more than sketches of scenes and characters.—But a still more remarkable change is in the structure and design of the pieces—The writers of the last age had more of the comic force; those of the present have more of sentiment and moral reflection—The ear is frequently shocked by the coarseness and indecency of the old writers; the modern scarcely venture upon a fly pun or a double-entendre. We might add that the old comedy is mostly constructed upon general principles; in the characters, general vices and follies are depicted; the moderns uniformly adapt their pieces to the times; ‘to catch the manners living as they rise,’ seems to be their immediate object; and so little is their regard to posterity, so transitory is the existence which they seem to designate for their pieces, that some of them are even written purposely to exhibit a favourite actor in some interesting scene, and the whole merit consists in this adaptation, and in a few temporary allusions.

The piece before us partakes largely of the modern character; it is rather sentimental than lively; it has more moral than wit; the plot, however, is chaste and simple, and some of the characters are excellently delineated—Our author is also above the little arts of her contemporaries; though a picture of modern manners, there are in her play none of those trifling temporary allusions, the sole object of which is to catch the momentary applause of the galleries; there is no pun; and if the author has been sparing of her wit, what there is is genuine—The cant phrases, and miserable affectation, which disgrace most of the modern productions, have no place in this drama.

The

The design of this comedy is truly dramatic; it is to exhibit the female manners of the last age in contrast with those of the present. Lord and lady Priory are a husband and wife of the old school; lady Mary Raffle and miss Dorrillon are modern belles. The formality of manners on one side, and the giddy thoughtlessness of the other parties, are well depicted—Yet we must agree that the former are by far the most respectable on the whole. We will not destroy the pleasure of the reader by anticipating the incidents; but as a specimen of the composition, present him with the following scene, in the former part of which the reader will perceive sir William Dorrillon addresses his daughter under the assumed character of Mandred—

‘ ACT V. SCENE II. *A Room in a Prison.*

‘ *Enter Miss Dorrillon and Mr. Norberry.*

‘ *Mr. Norberry.* You ought to have known it was in vain to send for me. Have not I repeatedly declared, that, till I heard from your father, you should receive nothing more from me than a bare subsistence?—I promise to allow you thus much, even in this miserable place: but do not indulge a hope that I can release you from it. [*She weeps—he goes to the door—then returns.*] I forgot to mention, that Mr. Mandred goes on board to-morrow for India; and, little as you may think of his sensibility, he seems concerned at the thought of quitting England without just bidding you farewell. He came with me hither—shall I send him up?

‘ *Miss Dorrillon.* Oh! no: for heaven’s sake! Deliver me from his asperity, as you would save me from distraction.

‘ *Mr. Norberry.* Nay, ’tis for the last time—you had better see him. You may be sorry, perhaps, you did not, when he is gone.

‘ *Miss Dorrillon.* No, no: I sha’n’t be sorry.—Go, and excuse me—Go, and prevent his coming. I cannot see him.—[*Exit Mr. Norberry.*]—This would be aggravation of punishment, to shut me in a prison, and yet not shelter me from the insults of the world!

‘ *Enter Sir William.*—[*She starts.*]

‘ *Sir William.* — I know you have desired not to be troubled with my visit; and I come with all humility—I do not come, be assured, to reproach you.

‘ *Miss Dorrillon.* Unexpected mercy!

‘ *Sir William.* No; though I have watched your course with anger, yet I do not behold its end, with triumph.

‘ *Miss Dorrillon.* It is not to your honour, that you think it necessary to give this statement of your mind.

‘ *Sir William.* May be—but I never boasted of perfection, though I can boast of grief that I am so far beneath it. I can boast

too, that, though I frequently give offence to others, I could never part with any one for ever (as I now shall with you), without endeavouring to make some atonement.

‘ *Miss Dorrillon.* You acknowledge, then, your cruelty to me?

‘ *Sir William.* I acknowledge I have taken upon me to advise, beyond the liberty allowed by custom to one who has no apparent interest or authority—But, not to repeat what has passed, I come, with the approbation of your friend Mr. Norberry, to make a proposal to you for the future. [*he draws chairs, and they sit.*]

‘ *Miss Dorrillon.* What proposal?—What is it? [*eagerly.*]

‘ *Sir William.* Mr. Norberry will not give either his money or his word to release you—But as I am rich—have lost my only child—and wish to do some good with my fortune, I will instantly lay down the money of which you are in want, upon certain conditions.

‘ *Miss Dorrillon.* Do I hear right? Is it possible I can find a friend in you?—a friend to relieve me from the depth of misery! Oh Mr. Mandred!

‘ *Sir William.* Before you return thanks, hear the conditions on which I make the offer.

‘ *Miss Dorrillon.* Any conditions—What you please!

‘ *Sir William.* You must promise, never, never to return to your former follies and extravagancies. [*She looks down.*] Do you hesitate? Do you refuse?—Won't you promise?

‘ *Miss Dorrillon.* I would, willingly—but, for one reason.

‘ *Sir William.* And what is that?

‘ *Miss Dorrillon.* The fear, I should not keep my word.

‘ *Sir William.* You will, if your fear be real.

‘ *Miss Dorrillon.* It is real—It is even so great, that I have no hope.

‘ *Sir William.* You refuse my offer then, and dismiss me? [*Rises.*]

‘ *Miss Dorrillon* [*rising also.*] With much reluctance.—But I cannot, indeed I cannot make a promise, unless I were to feel my heart wholly subdued; and my mind entirely convinced that I should never break it.—Sir, I am most sincerely obliged to you for the good which I am sure you designed me; but do not tempt me with the proposal again—do not place me in a situation, that might add to all my other afflictions, the remorse of having deceived you.

‘ *Sir William* [*after a pause.*] Well, I will dispense with this condition—but there is another I must substitute in its stead.—Resolve to pass the remainder of your life, some few ensuing years at least, in the country. [*She starts.*] Do you start at that?

‘ *Miss Dorrillon.* I do not love the country. I am always miserable while I am from London. Besides, there are no follies or

extravagancies in the country.—Dear Sir, this is giving me up the first condition, and then forcing me to keep it.

‘ *Sir William*. There, madam, [*taking out his pocket-book*] I scorn to hold out hopes, and then destroy them. There is a thousand pounds free of all conditions [*she takes it*—extricate yourself from this situation, and be your own mistress to return to it when you please. [*Going.*]

‘ *Miss Dorrillon*. Oh, my benefactor, bid me farewell at parting—do not leave me in anger.

‘ *Sir William*. How! will you dictate terms to me, while you reject all mine?

‘ *Miss Dorrillon*. Then only suffer me to express my gratitude—

‘ *Sir William*. I will not hear you. [*going.*]

‘ *Miss Dorrillon*. Then hear me on another subject: a subject of much importance—indeed it is.

‘ *Sir William*. Well!

‘ *Miss Dorrillon*. You are going to India immediately—It is possible that there, or at some place you will stop at on your way, you may meet with my father.

‘ *Sir William*. Well!

‘ *Miss Dorrillon*. You have heard that I have expected him home for some time past, and that I still live in hopes—

‘ *Sir William*. Well!—[*anxiously.*]

‘ *Miss Dorrillon*. If you should see him, and should be in his company—don’t mention me.

‘ *Sir William*. Not mention you?

‘ *Miss Dorrillon*. At least, not my indiscretions—Oh! I should die, if I thought he would ever know of them.

‘ *Sir William*. Do you think he would not discover them himself, should he ever see you?

‘ *Miss Dorrillon*. But he would not discover them all at once—I should be on my guard when he first came—My ill habits would steal on him progressively, and not be half so shocking, as if you were to vociferate them all in a breath.

‘ *Sir William*. To put you out of apprehension at once—your father is not coming home—nor will he ever return to his own country.

‘ *Miss Dorrillon* [*starting.*] You seem to speak from certain knowledge—Oh! heavens! is he not living?

‘ *Sir William*. Yes, living—but under severe affliction—fortune has changed, and all his hopes are blasted.

‘ *Miss Dorrillon*. “Fortune changed!”—In poverty?—my father in poverty?—[*weeping.*]—Oh, sir, excuse, what may perhaps appear an ill compliment to your bounty; but to me, the greatest reverence I can pay to it.—You are going to that part of the world, where he is; take this precious gift back, search out my father, and let him be the object of your beneficence.—[*Forces it into his hand.*]

—I shall be happy in this prison, indeed I shall, so I can but give a momentary relief to my dear, dear father.—[*Sir William takes out his handkerchief.*]—You weep!—This present, perhaps, would be but poor alleviation of his sufferings—perhaps he is in sickness; or a prisoner! Oh! if he is, release me instantly, and take me with you to the place of his confinement.

\* *Sir William.* What! quit the joys of London?

\* *Miss Dorrillon.* On such an errand, I would quit them all without a sigh—And here I make a solemn promise to you—  
[*kneeling.*]

\* *Sir William.* Hold, you may wish to break it.

\* *Miss Dorrillon.* Never—exact what vow you will on this occasion, I will make, and keep it.—[*Enter Mr. Norberry.—She rises.*]—Oh! Mr. Norberry, he has been telling me such things of my father—

\* *Mr. Norberry.* Has he? Then kneel again—call him by that name—and implore him not to disown you for his child.

\* *Miss Dorrillon.* Good heaven!—I dare not—I dare not do as you require. [*She faints on Norberry.*]

\* *Sir William* [*going to her.*] My daughter!—My child!

\* *Mr. Norberry.* At those names she revives.—[*She raises her head, but expresses great agitation.*]—Come, let us quit this wretched place—she will be better then. My carriage is at the door. You will follow us. [*Exeunt, leading off Miss Dorrillon.*]

\* *Sir William.* Follow you!—Yes—and I perceive that, in spite of philosophy, justice, or resolution, I could follow you all the world over.' p. 80.

*Archæologia: or Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity.*  
Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Vol. XI.  
4to. 1l. 1s. sewed. Whites.

**I**N this volume the generality of readers will not find much entertainment, nor the antiquarian any very deep researches to satisfy his curiosity. The most interesting article is the Memoir on British Naval Architecture, a subject which, we doubt not, will meet with farther attention from the society.

\* I. Observations on Pliny's Account of the Temple of Diana at Ephesus. By Thomas Falconer.—This is an able defence of Pliny's account of the temple, which is certainly too short for any person to form from thence an exact plan of the ground plot; and that given by this writer seems to be as well laid down as it can be from the few materials he had before him.

\* II. Extracts from the Household Book of Thomas Cony, of Baslingthorpe, c. Lincoln. In a Letter to the Earl of Leicester, P. S. A. By Edmund Turnor, Esq. F. A. & R. S.\*

\* III. On

‘III. On the Analogy between certain Ancient Monuments. By Richard Gough.’

‘IV. Observations on Kits Coity House, in Kent. In a Letter to Samuel Foart Simmons, M. D. F. R. and A. SS. By William Boys, Esq. F. A. S.’

These stones are here supposed to be in memorial of Horfa and Catigern, slain near this spot, and the original name is said to have been Kid Cautey Hors, i. e. the place of contention between Cautey and Hors. The derivation of Stonar, which follows, is to us equally judicious. *Estonore Stanore ora lapidea orientalis.*

‘V. Some Account of a Symbol of ancient Investiture in Scotland. In a Letter from Robert Riddell, Esq. F. A. S. to Mr. Gough.’—Prefixed to this article, is an engraving of a silver sword, once belonging to the family of Lany, thence by marriage coming into the family of Buchanan, of Arnprior. With this sword Culen, king of Scotland, about the year 1695, invested Gillespie Moir with the family estate, confirmed by charter in 1227, by Alexander II. which charter now remains in the family of Buchanan, of Arnprior. Other investitures were by presenting a durk, as in the case of the lairds of Skein.—The lairds of M’Leod, and the Strath-bolgie family, were girt with a sword.

‘VI. Observations on a Greek Inscription at London. By Mr. Gough. In a Letter to the Rev. T. W. Wrighte, Secretary.’

VII. ‘Notices of the Manor of Cavendish, in Suffolk, and of the Cavendish Family while possessed of that Manor. By Thomas Ruggles, Esq. F. A. S.’—It is for the honour of this country, however it may be seen in a very different light in other countries, that real nobility is not with us affected by blood. A duke, whose mother was a tradesman’s daughter in the city, is as good a duke as another descended from a succession of ladies of the first quality: and in tracing the origin of a family, we are not at all surprised that some of the ancestors are to be found in a barber’s shop, in a great brewery, in a counting-house, or behind the plough. Abroad, where the nobility has not so great a concern in the affairs of the country as our own, their consequence must be kept up by other pretensions. The idle notion of birth must be attended to. To mix with the blood of tradesmen, merchants, bankers, country gentlemen, farmers, is a degradation: and whilst, on the other hand, we have not probably a single nobleman in England, whose family pretensions could undergo the common scrutiny for admission into any of the noble chapters of Germany, it is pleasing to see so much good sense in England, as it is an effectual cure to the false pride so com-

mon in other countries. The Devonshire family is distinguished by its rank in the country, and by the services rendered at the Revolution. That its origin may be traced to the obscure village of Cavendish in Suffolk, and small property in it, places the family only on a footing with most of the other families in England.

The chief men in this family were sir John Cavendish, in 1359, chief justice of the King's Bench,—John Cavendish; his second son, distinguished by an action not very honourable to him, the killing of Wat Tyler after the lord-mayor had stabbed him,—William Cavendish, citizen and mercer of London, his eldest son, who increased by trade the wealth and consequence of the family. Thus, says the writer—

‘ The Cavendish manor and estate, therefore, was alienated, and passed in 1569 from the elder branches of the Cavendishes. In the mean time a younger branch of the family descended from Thomas Cavendish, clerk of the pipe, who left other sons besides George, viz. William and Thomas. William laid the foundation, and almost reared the structure of greatness which the Devonshire family now possesses: but Guthrie is again mistaken, when he says that George, the eldest son of Thomas, had two sons, who both died without issue; whereas it has been proved from original deeds, that William, the eldest, had issue, a son, who alienated the estate to William Downes. Whether the elder branch of the Cavendish family be extinct by the death of William Cavendish, of London, mercer, without issue, I am not able to say; but should presume not, because in the register of Cavendish there is this notice: ‘ William Cavendish, son of Ralph Cavendish, gentleman, baptized 1612.’ p. 59.

‘ VIII. Account of some Roman Antiquities lately discovered in Cumberland. By the Rev. D. Carlisle, of Carlisle. Communicated by the Lord Bishop of Salisbury.’—We are glad to see that Mr. Carlisle is interesting himself in the Roman remains in his neighbourhood. From his researches much may be expected. His opinion confirms ours on the altar to Belatucader, which he derives from the Arabic, to be *Bel potenti*. We agree, therefore, on the meaning of the word *cad*: on *atu* or *du*, we still think that we have ground for our opinion. We were more pleased with some observations on another altar.

‘ This altar was found some years ago in the bank of a rivulet, which runs by the fort; and an engraving of it is given by Mr. Brand in his history of Newcastle; but as it was covered with moss and dirt at the time he inspected it, he could not examine the

the inscription so accurately as I have been enabled to do from the altar in my own possession.

‘ The symbols upon the sides, a thunderbolt and wheel, sufficiently declare that the altar was dedicated to Jupiter, although the letters I. O. M. which, no doubt, were once upon it, are broken off, together with the upper part of the stone. The original inscription, therefore, I fancy might be read thus :

‘ Iovi Optimo Maximo  
ET NVMINibus AVGVsti  
Nestri, COHors SECVNDA TVN-  
GRORum GORDiana Milliaria ECquitata  
FIDa. CVI PRÆ-  
EST . . . . . CLAV-  
DIVS . . . . . PRA-  
EFectus, INSTANTE  
AELio MARTINO  
PRINCipe, X Kalendarum Ianuarii,  
IMPeratore Domino Nestro AVGVsto III. PO-  
MPIANO, ConsulibUS.

‘ The mark  $\square$  (milliaria) seems to have been at first omitted by the workman, and added afterwards between the lines. The *Cohors Equitata Milliaria* (whose existence, as part of the Roman army, appears to be not much known) is thus described by Hyginus ; “ Habet Cohors Equitata Milliaria pedites septingentos sexaginta, centurias decem, equites ducentos quadraginta, turmas decem.” And although the name of milliary cohort was originally confined to the first cohort of the legion, as consisting of a thousand men, yet, in the latter times of the empire, according to Vegetius “ non tantum unam cohortem sed etiam alias milliarias legio fuit iussa suscipere.”

‘ In the last line but one of this inscription, there is an evident mistake of III for II, as we know, from the Fasti, that Pompeianus was the colleague of Gordian in his third consulship.

‘ It is remarkable, that though the first cohort of Tungri is spoken of by the Notitia, and to be traced in various inscriptions found in the neighbourhood of the Roman wall, yet neither the Notitia, nor a single stone (as far as I know) except this altar, make any mention of the second cohort. That it ever was in Britain, appears only to be known from a few words of Tacitus : “ Agricola, (says he, in describing the battle with Galgacus) tres Batavorum cohortes ac Tungrorum duas cohortatus est ut rem ad mucrones ac manus adducerent,” &c. It is pleasing to see a passage in a Roman historian and an inscription dug up in Cumberland thus mutually throwing light upon each other.’ p. 68.

‘ IX. Observations on the Burning of the Steeple of St.

Paul’s



**Paul's Cathedral, London.** By the Rev. S. Denne. In a Letter to Mr. Gough.—The steeple of St. Paul's church was set on fire by lightning on June 4, 1561, between one and two of the clock in the afternoon, and not, as represented by Stowe, between three and four o'clock.

‘X. Remarks on an Italian musical Instrument. In a Letter to General Melville. From John Moir, Esq.’—The fistula of the ancient satyrs and fauns is still in use in Lombardy.

‘XI. Farther Account of Antiquities discovered in Cornwall, 1774. By Philip Rastleigh, Esq. F. R. and A. SS. In a Letter to Mr. Gough.’

‘XII. An illuminated Letter of Filiation among the Grey Friars. Communicated by Craven Ord, Esq. F. R. and A. SS. In a Letter to the President.’

‘XIII. Extract from the Wardrobe Account of Prince Henry, eldest Son of King James I. Communicated by William Bray, Esq. F. A. S. In a Letter to Mr. Wrighte, Secretary.’—The tailor's bill for one year amounted to 4574*l.* 14*s.* 0½*d.*

‘XIV. Copy of a Survey made of what remained in the Armoury of the Tower of London, in Consequence of a Commission issued August 2, 1660, 12 Charles II. Communicated by William Bray, Esq. F. R. A. SS.

‘XV. Account of a Brass Vessel found near Dumfries in Scotland, 1790. By Robert Riddell, Esq. F. A. S.’

‘XVI. Notices of Fonts in Scotland. By Robert Riddell, Esq. F. A. S. In a Letter to Mr. Gough.’

‘XVII. Evidence of a Lavatory, appertaining to the Benedictine Priory of Canterbury Cathedral; and Observations on Fonts. By the Rev. Samuel Denne, F. S. A. In a Letter to Richard Gough, Esq. Director.’—Some good arguments are given, maintaining that for many centuries there was not a font in either Canterbury or St. Paul's cathedrals, and consequently the rotunda in Canterbury cathedral was not a baptistery. This writer supposes it to have been the lavatory of the monks.

‘XVIII. Memoir on British Naval Architecture. By Ralph Willett, F. A. & R. SS.’—Before the reign of Henry the Eighth, our navy was very insignificant. Edward the Third's armada consisted of 1100 vessels, and yet had on board only 11,166 men, that is, little more than ten men to a vessel. To Henry the Eighth we are indebted for the formation of a regular navy. He established dock-yards at Woolwich, Deptford, and Chatham, but was obliged to hire foreign workmen, as we learn from the following curious report made to James the First in the year 1618—

“In former times our kings have enlarged their dominions rather by land than sea forces, whereat even strangers have marvelled, considering the many advantages of a navy; but since the change of weapons and fight, Henry the Eighth making use of Italian shipwrights, and encouraging his own people to build strong ships of war to carry great ordnance, by that means established a puissant navy, which in the end of his reign consisted of seventy vessels, whereof thirty were ships of burthen; and contained in all 10,550 tons, and two galleys: the rest were small barks and row barges from eighty tons downwards to fifteen tons, which served in rivers, and for landing of men. Edward the Sixth in the sixth year of his reign had but fifty-three ships, containing in all 11005 tons, with 7995 men, whereof only twenty-eight vessels were above eighty tons each. Queen Mary had but forty-six of all sorts.” P. 158.

The indenture between Henry the Eighth and lord Howard in 1512 is too long for insertion: but as the wages of the navy have lately been the subject of very serious discussion, the settling of them so far back may gratify our readers.

‘And the said admiral shall have, for maintaining himself, and his diets and rewards *daily*, during the said voyage ten shillings.

‘And for every of the said captains, for their diets, wages, and rewards, daily during the said kruse, eighteen pence, except they be of the king’s *spers*, which shall be contented with their ordinary wages.

‘And for every soldier, mariner, and gunner, he shall have every month during the said voyage, accounting twenty-eight daies for the month, five shillings for his wages, and five shillings for his victuals, without any thing else demanded for wages or victuals, saving that they shall have certain dead shares, as hereafter doth ensue, of all which wages, rewards, and victual-money the said admiral shall be paid in manner and form following: He shall before he and his retinue enter into the ships, make their moustres before such commissioners as shall please our said sovereign lord to depute and appoint; and immediately after such moustres be made, he shall receive of our sovereign lord, by the hands of such as his grace shall appoint for himself, the said captains, soldiers, mariners, and gunners, wages, rewards, and victual money, after the rate before rehearsed for three months then next ensuing, accounting the month as above.

‘And at the same time he shall receive for the cost of every captain and soldier four shillings; and for the cost of every mariner and gunner twenty pence; and at the end of the said three months, when the said admiral shall with his said navy and retinue resort to the port of Southampton, and then and there revictual himself, and the said navy and army, and retinue, he shall make his moustres before such commissioners as it shall please his grace the king therefore

fore to appoint within *bord*; and after the said monthes so made, he shall, for himself, the said captains, soldiers, mariners, and gunners, receive of our said sovereign lord, by the hands of such as his grace shall appoint, new wages and victual-money after the rate before rehearsed for the said three months next ensuing; and so from three months to three months continually during the said time, the said admiral shall have also for himself, the said captains, soldiers, mariners, and gunners afore the bestowing their bags, baggages, and victuals; and for the exploit of the said service of war, at the cost and charges of our said sovereign lord, eighteen ships, whereof the names and portage hereafter ensue, in such manner rigged, equipped, tackled, *decked*, and furnished with artillery, as to such a voyage and service for the honour of said sovereign lord, and the weal of the journey, shall be thought to his grace and his council necessary and expedient.' p. 160.

'Also the soldiers, mariners, and gunners shall have of our sovereign lord conduct-money, that is to say, every of them for every day's journey from his house to the place where they shall be shipped, accounting twelve miles for the day's journey, six-pence, of which days they shall have evidence by their oaths before him or them that our said sovereign lord shall appoint and assign to pay them the said wages and conduct-money.' p. 162.

In this indenture, ships of two hundred tons are called *royal*, and are reserved for the king, if captured.

Great improvements were made in sir Walter Raleigh's time, by striking the top-masts, the chain-pump, studding-sails, capstern. In anchors and cables, the change since his time is very remarkable—

'All this, and a great deal more, hath been done since his time; for, the cables, which were then about seventy eight fathom, are now one hundred and twenty; and two cables an end are frequently made use of. The size of the anchors hath been increased: the sheet-anchor of the first Royal Sovereign weighed only 4400lb., though she was about the size of our present seventy-four gun ships, viz. about 1651 tons, whose sheet-anchor weighs 6700lb.; the sheet-anchor of the Prince, burthen about 1230 tons, weighed only 3200lb.; that of our present sixty gun ships about the same tonnage, viz. 1220 tons, weighs 5300lb. Another considerable improvement occurs in the masts and yards of the two periods; for as we have with great judgment increased the weights of our anchors, we have, with no less knowledge, decreased the size of the masts and yards. The main-mast of the Prince was 102 feet long; the diameter of it three feet three inches; the main-mast of our sixty gun ships, as above, is only ninety-four feet ten inches long; diameter two feet seven inches  $\frac{1}{2}$ . I am not able to ascertain the masts

masts and yards of the Royal Sovereign; it may be sufficient to observe that the main-mast of our present Royal George, burthen about 2300 tons, is only 117 feet long; that she hath one deck more than the Prince, which probably takes off eight or nine feet of that length: the diameter of it is only three feet two inches  $\frac{1}{2}$ , not quite so thick as that of the Prince, although almost double her tonnage; the main yard of the Prince was ninety-six feet long, diameter two feet; that of our sixty gun ships main-yard is eighty-four feet two inches long; diameter one foot eight inches  $\frac{1}{4}$ . Any person acquainted with the importance of diminishing the weight above water of a ship as much as possible, will be sensible of this great improvement; as also of the reduction in the quarter galleries of our great ships. Those in a ninety gun ship are now not larger than they used to be in our old forty gun ships; the poop royal, in our present first-rates, is omitted, and that enormous weight aloft taken away; nothing is given to parade; the height between decks, at least in the cabin part, is lessened almost two feet. P. 167.

In 1549, it is recorded as a great feat, that not less than 300 shot were fired in an engagement between the fleets of France and England: lord Rodney's single ship fired more than double that number when the Ville de Paris was taken. Many other curious facts are mentioned in this memoir, and very judicious remarks are made on the means of improving our navy; and we should be glad to hear that the memoir had been presented to the lords of the admiralty, as well as the Antiquarian Society. The present state and progress of the navy is thus summed up at the conclusion—

‘ Our first-rates now are above 2300 tons; our second-rates above 2000; and one of them even 2100 tons; our eighties from 1900 to 2000 tons; our seventies from 1700 to upwards of 1800 tons; and our sixty-fours of above 1400; with calibre of guns that they now can bear very well.

‘ But this gradual progress cannot be better ascertained than by giving the states of our navy through the different periods I have mentioned. Henry the Eighth left a navy of 10550 tons, consisting of seventy-one vessels, whereof thirty were ships of burthen. Edward the Sixth had fifty-three ships, containing 11005 tons, whereof only twenty-eight were above eighty tons. Queen Mary had only forty-six of all sorts. Queen Elizabeth's consisted of 17030 tons, whereof thirty ships were of 200 tons, and upwards.

‘ The pacific reign of James the First is not more brilliant in the ships than, perhaps, in the other parts of it, having added only 1596 tons to the navy, left by Elizabeth. Of both these only eighteen were ships of 200 tons and upwards. Charles the First added only nine ships, besides the Royal Sovereign. But, in giving this last, he did great service to the navy, by increasing the size

as well as improving the form of building them. Charles the Second, in 1684, enlarged the number as well as the size of them to 100,385 tons; one hundred sail of them of the line. In 1697 it was increased to 168,224 tons, 121 line of battle. At the end of Anne it was 147,830 tons, 131 line of battle; in 1730, 160,275 tons, 126 line of battle; at the end of 1745, 165,635 tons; but, at the end of 1782, when the American war ended, during which Great Britain had the united naval force of France, Spain, Holland, and the American States, to contend with, and did it with honour and success, the exertion was indeed extraordinary; for, our navy consisted of 491,709 tons, 615 vessels, whereof 164 were of the line, although they had increased nearly to their present magnitude.

‘Answerable to this increase of the ships was the number of our seamen; for, instead of 40,000, the usual allotment voted for the navy, during the reign of queen Anne, and long afterwards, the astonishing number of 95,000, were frequently borne and employed on-board it during the heat of the American war; and yet we found that the merchant-service was not materially hurt by that excessive number for the naval service.’ P. 197.

‘XIX. The Rates of Wages of Servants, Labourers, and Artificers, set down and assessed at Okcham, within the County of Rutland, by the Justices of Peace there, the 28th Day of April, Anno Domini 1610. Communicated by Thomas Barker, Esq. of Lyndon.’

‘XX. A briefe Discourse on Dover Haven. Communicated by T. W. Wrighte, M. A. Secretary. From the Papers bequeathed to the Society of Antiquaries of London. By the late John Thorpe, Esq. M. A. and F. S. A.’—This memoir may be perused with profit by the antiquarians at Dover, and the persons intrusted with the management of Dover harbour.

‘XXI. Account of Bicknacre Priory, in Essex. In a Letter addressed to the Earl of Leicester, President of the Society of Antiquaries. By John Henniker Major, Esq. M. A. F. A. S. F. R. S. M. P.’

‘XXII. Memoir on the Origin of Printing. Addressed to John Topham, Esq. F. R. and A. SS. By Ralph Willett, Esq. F. R. and A. SS.’—The testimonies in favour of the claims of different persons and towns to the honour of inventing printing, are brought together in a very judicious manner. The writer, in our opinion, completely overthrows the authority of the Lambeth manuscript, and the insolent pretensions of the town of Haarlem. On the latter point we must lay before our readers a proof of party spirit, which, in this as in so many other cases, fights against the truth.

‘Carle

‘Carle Van Mañder, nearly cotemporary with Junius, though he commemorates many artists of inferior fame, says nothing of Coster, or his pretended discovery; but, in speaking of the mariner’s compass, and its wonderful utility, proceeds thus: “Que les anciens écrivains ne le seroient pas moins (surpris) quand ils verroient l’art plus utile de la typographie, dont la ville d’Harlem s’arroge la premiere invention avec assez de présomption.” These are his genuine words in his own edition of 1604, fol. 300; but, in a late edition of 1764, these offensive words, “avec assez de présomption” are altered, *monstrum horrendum!* into “dont Harlem avec assez de fondement s’attribue l’invention!” What a cause to want such supports!” P. 316.

Upon sufficient ground, the honour of the invention is attributed to Guttenberg, a citizen of Mentz, which place is dignified therefore by giving birth to a man, who, if titles, rank, fortune could ennoble him, ought to have been ennobled beyond all the dukes, princes, landgraves, and all the great and small sovereigns of the empire.

‘XXIII. Observations on Episcopal Chairs and Stone Seats; as also on Piscinas and other Appendages to Altars still remaining in Chancels; with a Description of Chalk Church, in the Diocese of Rochester. In a Letter from Mr. Charles Clarke, to the Rev. Samuel Denne, F. A. S.’

‘XXIV. A brief Survey of a Part of Canterbury Cathedral, as described by Eadmer and Gervase: and a Review of Mr. Clarke’s Opinion of the original Use of Stone Seats in Chancels. By the Rev. Samuel Denne, F. A. S.’

‘XXV. Some Remarks on the European Names of Chessmen, in a Letter from Francis Douce, Esq. to the Rev. Mr. Brand, Secretary.’—Chess was known in the sixth century in the west of India, by the name of Chaturanga, which the Persians changed into Chatrang,—the Arabs into Shatranj—and other nations into Axedrez, Scacchi, Echecs, Chesh.—The name of the queen was Phez, the counsellor or general of the army; hence Vierge—Virgo—Queen. The pawns were called by the French, in the middle ages, Paon,—Paounet,—Paonnez,—Paonniers,—Poons,—Poonnes, and Pionnes,—probably derived from *pedones*, a barbarous Latin term for foot-foldiers. Other derivations are given, which are sanctioned by extracts from ancient authors.

‘XXVI. Observations on an Antient Cup formerly belonging to the Abbey of Glastonbury. By the Rev. John Milner, M. A. F. S. A. in a Letter to Mr. Gough.’

Appendix—Description of Pots, Spurs, Horns, &c. &c.

*A History of Inventions and Discoveries. By John Beckmann, Public Professor of Economy in the University of Göttingen. Translated from the German, by William Johnston. 3 Vols. 8vo. 11. 1s. Boards. Bell. 1797.*

THE contents of this work are exceedingly miscellaneous; and the articles follow each other without order or connection. In the first volume—*Italian book-keeping—odometer—machine for noting down music—refining—dry gilding—gold varnish—tulips—canary bird, &c.* are treated in the order here set down: but though these subjects are totally unconnected with each other, it would surely have had some little appearance of regularity, and at least might have assisted the reader in turning readily to any particular subject, if they had been inserted alphabetically.

On the first view of the table of contents, we were led to imagine that this work included something of great practical importance to the arts; but what has been our disappointment on finding, that not a single improvement is suggested throughout the whole, and that the *history* of inventions, and that an imperfect history, is all the author professes to give! Our readers will find this, among other matters, touched upon in the following account of the work given by the translator.

‘ That the arts (says he) had their rise in the East, and that they were conveyed thence to the Greeks, and from them to the Romans, is universally admitted. Respecting the inventions and discoveries however of the early ages, nothing certain is known. Many of those most useful in common life must have been the production of periods when men were little acquainted with letters, or any sure mode of transmitting an account of their improvements to succeeding generations. The taste which then prevailed of giving to every thing a divine origin rendered traditional accounts fabulous; and the exaggeration of poets tended more and more to make such authorities less worthy of credit. A variety of works also, which might have supplied us with information on this subject, have been lost; and the relations of some of those preserved are so corrupted and obscure, that the best commentators have not been able to illustrate them. This in particular is the case with many passages in Pliny, an author who appears to have collected with the utmost diligence whatever he thought useful or curious, and whose desire of communicating knowledge seems to have been equal to his thirst for acquiring it.

‘ Of all those nations whose history has been preserved, the most distinguished are certainly the Greeks and the Romans; but, as far as can be judged at this remote period, the former were superior to the latter in point of invention. The Romans indeed seem to have known

known little, except what they borrowed from the Grecians; and it is evident, by their sending their young men of rank to finish their education in Greece, that they considered that country as the seat of the arts and the sciences, and as a school where genius would be excited by the finest models, while the taste was corrected and formed. From some hints given however by Pliny and other writers, we have reason to conclude that the Romans possessed more knowledge of the arts than the moderns perhaps are willing to allow, and that some inventions, considered as new, may be only old ones revived and again rendered useful.

When Rome, abandoned to luxury and vice, became an easy prey to those hordes of barbarians who overran the empire, her arts shared in the general wreck, and were either entirely lost, or for a time forgotten. The deplorable state of ignorance in which Europe was afterwards plunged during several centuries, retarded their revival; and it was not till a late period, when favoured and protected by a few men of superior genius, that they began to be again cultivated. It cannot however be denied, that several important discoveries, altogether unknown to the ancients, which must have had considerable influence on the general state of society, were made in ages that can hardly be exempted from the appellation of barbarous. As a proof of this may be mentioned the invention of paper, painting on oil, the mariner's compass, gunpowder, printing, and engraving on copper. After the invention of the compass and printing, two grand sources were opened for the improvement of science. In proportion as navigation was extended, new objects were discovered to awaken the curiosity and excite the attention of the learned; and the ready means of diffusing knowledge, afforded by the press, enabled the ingenious to make them publicly known. Ignorance and superstition, the formidable enemies of philosophy in every age, began soon to lose some of that power which they had usurped; and states, forgetting their former blind policy, adopted improvements which their prejudice had before condemned.

Though it might be expected that the great share which new inventions and discoveries have at all times had in effecting such happy changes among mankind, would have secured them a distinguished place in the annals of nations; we find with regret, that the pen of history has been more employed in recording the crimes of ambition and the ravage of conquerors, than in preserving the remembrance of those who, by improving science and the arts, contributed to increase the conveniencies of life, and to heighten its enjoyments. So little indeed has hitherto been done towards a history of inventions and discoveries, that the rise and progress of part of those even of modern times is involved in considerable darkness and obscurity: of some the names of the inventors are not so much as known, and the honour of others is disputed by different nations; while



while the evidences on both sides are so imperfect, that it is almost impossible to determine to which the palm is due. To professor Beckmann, therefore, those fond of such researches are much indebted for the pains he has been at to collect information on this subject; and though he has perhaps not been able to clear up every doubt respecting the objects on which he treats, he has certainly thrown much light on many curious circumstances hitherto buried in oblivion.

The author, with much modesty, gives to this work in the original the title of only Collections towards a History of Inventions: but as he has carefully traced out the rise and progress of all those objects which form the subject of his enquiry, from the earliest periods of their being known, as far as books supplied information, and arranged his matter in chronological order, the original title may admit, without being liable to much criticism, of the small variation adopted in the translation. The author, indeed, has not in these volumes comprehended every invention and discovery, but he has given an account of a great many, most of them very important; and it is not improbable that his labours in this respect may be continued. Should that be the case, and should the present work be favourably received, the rest of the original, when a sufficiency is published to form another volume, will be translated, and presented to the public in the like manner.

Should any one be disposed to find fault with the author for introducing into his work some articles which on the first view may appear trifling, his own words, taken from the short preface prefixed to the first volume of the original, will perhaps be considered as a better exculpation than any thing the translator might advance in his favour. "I am sensible," says he, "that many here will find circumstances which they may think unworthy of the labour I have bestowed upon them; but those who know how different our judgments are respecting utility, will not make theirs a rule for mine. Those whose self-conceit would never allow them to be sensible of this truth, and who reject as useless all ore in which they do not observe pure gold, as they display very little acuteness, must be often duped by the tinsel glare of false metal; and they give me as little uneasiness as those who have no desire to know the origin of inventions, or how they were brought to their present utility. If my extending the term Invention farther than is perhaps usual, by comprehending under it several police-establishments, be a fault, it is at any rate harmless, and on that account may be pardoned without much apology."

Germany, beyond all dispute, has given birth to more important discoveries and inventions than any other part of Europe; and gun-powder, printing, and a variety of useful machines, will remain lasting monuments of the inventive genius of the Germans. In chemistry and mechanics they seem however to have made the

greatest figure, and for this a very satisfactory reason may be assigned. Germany, since the earliest periods, has been celebrated for its mines. To facilitate the labour of working these, machinery was necessary; and to extract the metal from the ore, and turn it to advantage, required a knowledge of chemical operations. Necessity is said to be the mother of invention; and it is natural to suppose that a people will always employ the efforts of their genius on those objects from which they are most likely to derive benefit.

In the history of chemical discoveries and mechanical inventions, above all, professor Beckmann has enjoyed, therefore, an advantage which might have been wanting to a writer of any other nation. It will require no great sagacity to discover, that allusion is here made to the opportunities he had of consulting many German works, little or perhaps not known in other parts of Europe, and of searching ancient annals and public records never before drawn from their obscurity to give testimony in favour of the arts. He indeed seems to have applied to every source that was likely to enrich his subject; and the voluntary contributions of learned friends enabled him to enlarge his work with much useful information, for which he expresses on several occasions his grateful acknowledgment.

The German original made its appearance in separate parts at various times; and the whole as yet published, a few small articles excepted, is now presented to the public in an English dress. The different articles in the translation are not placed exactly in the same order as in the original; but as they were arranged by the author neither alphabetically nor chronologically, this difference is of very little importance to the reader.

As the original was published in parts at different times, the author, when he found materials, gave additions to a few of the articles in some of the subsequent parts. In the translation these additions are incorporated into the articles to which they belong, and, the translator flatters himself, in such a manner as the author intended. The translator must observe also, that he has taken the liberty to abridge the original in a few places where he thought it necessary, and to give some of the text in the form of notes. The passages omitted were for the most part dry etymological researches, which could not have been well understood except by those versed in the German language; and the parts of the text now to be found among the notes must undoubtedly appear to every reader of taste much better disposed in that manner than as they were in the original. The translator has likewise occasionally added a few notes, which, to those who read for improvement, may not appear superfluous. Vol. i. p. v.

Admitting the truth of all that is here set forth in behalf

of the work, we cannot still retract our objections to its want of utility. The history of any invention or discovery, though certainly gratifying to curiosity, and exciting an interest in the mind of the antiquarian, is of little or no use to the manufacturer or the artist. We do not, in fact, see why the author should have confined himself so rigorously to his plan, as to quit the several subjects on which he treats, exactly at the moment when his observations begin to have a claim to the epithet of useful. The history of any art would not certainly be the less complete for describing the present state of it, or even if it included a brief account of projected improvements. But we find that this view of his subject has been most pertinaciously avoided by professor Beckmann, not alone in those cases in which the hopes of the artist are tantalised, but even in those where the good of mankind is materially concerned. This we shall instance in the following extract from the chapter on 'The Adulteration of Wines,' which will at the same time serve as a specimen of the work itself, and also of the accurate manner in which, whatever may be the demerits of the original, the translator has performed *his* task.

'No adulteration of any article has ever been invented so pernicious to the health, and at the same time so much practised, as that of wine with preparations of lead; and as the inventor must have been acquainted with its destructive effects, he deserves, for making it known, severer execration than Berthold Schwartz, the supposed inventor of gunpowder.

'The juice of the grape, when squeezed out, becomes wine through the first degree of fermentation; but scarcely has that begun when it approaches the second degree, called the four fermentation. It then loses its spirit; instead of which it becomes combined with an acid, which renders it unfit to be drunk, and of much less utility. The progress of the fermentation may be stopped by care and attention; but to bring the liquor back to its former state is impossible; for the law of corruption is a law of nature, and admits of no exception. Ingenuity, however, has invented a fraudulent method of rendering the acid in spoilt wine imperceptible; so that those who are not judges are often imposed on, and purchase sweetened vinegar instead of wine. Were no other articles used for sweetening it than honey or sugar, the adulterator would deserve no severer punishment than those who sell pinchbeck for gold; but saccharine juices can be used only when the liquor begins to turn sour; and even then in very small quantities, else it would betray the imposition by its sweetish-sour taste, and hasten that corruption it is intended to prevent. A sweetener, therefore, has been invented much surer for the fraudulent dealer, but infinitely more destructive to the consumer; and those who employ

employ it, undoubtedly, merit the same punishment as the most infamous poisoners.

Lead and calx of lead, dissolved in the acid which spoils wine, give it a saccharine taste not unpleasant, without any new, or at least perceptible, tint, and stop the fermentation or corruption. The wine, however, occasions, according as it is used in a great or small quantity, and according to the constitution of the consumer, a speedy or lingering death, violent colics, obstructions and other maladies; so that one may justly doubt whether, at present, Mars, Venus, or Saturn is most destructive to the human race.

The ancients, in my opinion, knew that lead rendered harsh wine milder, and preserved it from acidity, without being aware that it was poisonous. It was, therefore, long used with confidence; and when its effects were discovered they were not ascribed to the metal, but to some other cause. When more accurate observation, in modern times, fully established the noxious quality of lead, and when it began to be dreaded in wine, unprincipled dealers invented an artful method of employing it, which the law, by the severest punishment, has not been able wholly to prevent.

The Greeks and the Romans were accustomed to boil their wine over a slow fire, till only a half, third, or fourth part remained, and to mix it with bad wine in order to render it better. When, by this operation, it had lost part of its watery particles, and had been mixed with honey and spices, it acquired several names, such as *mustum*, *mulsum*, *sapa*, *caracum*, or *caracum*, *defrutum*, &c. Even at present the same method is pursued with sack, Spanish, Hungarian, and Italian wines. In Italy new wine, which has been thus boiled, is put into flasks, and used for sallad and fauces. In Naples it is called *musto cotto*; but in Florence it still retains the name of *sapa*. Most of those authors who have described this method of boiling wine expressly say that leaden or tin vessels must be employed; because the wine, by these, is rendered more delicious and durable, as well as clearer. It is, however, certain that must and sour wine by slow boiling, for according to their directions it should not be boiled quickly, must dissolve part of these dangerous metals, otherwise the desired effect could not be produced. Some also were accustomed to add to their wine, before it was boiled, a certain quantity of sea water, which by its saline particles must necessarily accelerate the dissolution.

That the acid of wine has the power of dissolving lead was not unknown to the ancients; for when the Greek and Roman wine-merchants wished to try whether their wine was spoilt, they immersed in it a plate of lead. If the colour of the lead was changed, which undoubtedly would be the case when its surface was corroded and converted into calx, they concluded that their wine was spoilt. It cannot, however, be said that they were altogether ignorant of the dangerous effects of solutions of that metal;

for Galen and other physicians often give cautions respecting white lead. Notwithstanding this, men fell upon the invention of conveying water for culinary purposes in leaden pipes; and even at present at Amsterdam, Paris, and other places water is conveyed through lead, and collected in leaden cisterns, though that practice has, on several occasions, been attended with alarming consequences. This negligence in modern times makes us not be surprised when we read that the ancients employed leaden vessels. It appears, however, that it was not merely through negligence that this practice prevailed. They were acquainted, and particularly in Pliny's time, with various processes used in regard to wine; and among these was that of boiling it with lime or gypsum; and the ancient physicians, who had not the assistance of modern chemistry, thought it more probable that their wine was rendered noxious by the addition of these earths, than by the vessels in which it was boiled; and they were the more inclined to this opinion, as they had instances of the fatal effects produced by the use of them. They decried them, therefore, so much, that laws were afterwards made by which they were forbidden to be used, as poisonous and destructive to the human body.' Vol. i. p. 396.

After remarking on the practice, still common in the Spanish island of Zante, and some other countries, of meliorating sour wines by the addition of lime, and alluding also to the custom of the ancients who clarified their wines with gypsum, our author traces this inhuman practice of adulterating them with lead up to the present period; and remarks, by the way, on the countenance given (ignorantly, we trust) by two physicians, who declared their opinions that the addition of litharge was a harmless practice. The following concise remark on the means of detecting lead in wines, is all that professor Beckmann has thought proper to communicate, though he refers us in a note to a German author, where it is to be supposed the subject is sufficiently enlarged on. He says—

'For detecting metal in wine, the arsenical liver of sulphur is commonly employed; a solution of which is called *liquor probatorius Wurtembergicus*. This appellation, in my opinion, has been given to it because it was first applied for that purpose by a public order in the duchy of Wurtemberg; though the invention is ascribed to one of the duke's physicians. The use of it however is not attended with certainty: not only because it precipitates all metals black without distinction, for lead is not the only one that we have reason to suspect in wine; but because this proof becomes very dubious when gypsum has been added to the wine also, for the blackness of the precipitate becomes then imperceptible by the whiteness of the earth.' Vol. i. p. 414.

It may be useful to those who may feel alarmed at our author's statement, to be informed of an easy way in which, by boiling in a little water equal parts of kali and sulphur, a liquor may be prepared that will precipitate a black powder to the bottom of the glass, when a few drops of it are added to wine that is adulterated with lead. This simple but important caution, we think, ought not to have been omitted by our author, who might at least have added it in a note.

The following is the *whole* of the chapter on dry gilding, in the same volume!—

‘Dry gilding, as it is called by some workmen, is a light method of gilding, by steeping linen rags in a solution of gold, then burning them; and, with a piece of cloth dipped in salt-water, rubbing the ashes over silver intended to be gilt. This method requires neither much labour, nor much gold, and may be employed with advantage for carved works and ornaments. It is however not durable.

‘I am of opinion, that this manner of gilding is a German invention, and that foreigners, at least the English, were first made acquainted with it about the end of the last century; for Robert Southwell describes it in the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1698, and says, that it was known to very few goldsmiths in Germany.’ Vol. i. p. 31.

We find the articles ‘Magnetic Cures’—‘Turk,’—‘Hungary Water,’—‘Bills of Exchange,’ and many others, no less exceptionable, either because of their brevity, or for want of importance. But above all, we think the chapter on ‘Jugglers’ the least worthy of appearing in such a work, as indeed the author seems himself to have apprehended, from the preliminary excuses which introduce his remarks.

On the whole, we think the work before us one which greatly interests curiosity, though it affords nothing that admits of any useful application to the arts. We have our doubts; likewise, as to the author's impartiality, and can scarcely, in all instances, allow the validity of those authorities on which he founds his country's claim to the merit of various inventions highly useful to mankind. It would, however, lead us into a field of discussion far beyond our prescribed limits: for which reason we shall content ourselves with having awakened our reader's attention to that circumstance, and shall conclude, with lamenting the editor's indiscretion in changing the original title of the work from that of ‘*Collections towards a History of Inventions*,’ under which there is no doubt it would have appeared with singular propriety.

*The Enquirer. Reflections on Education, Manners, and Literature. In a Series of Essays. By William Godwin. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Beard's. Robinsons. 1797.*

IT is somewhat out of order, we believe, in the critical senate, to refer to the former productions of an author, in examining his present claims to merit:—indeed, it is unquestionably the fairest mode of proceeding, to let every literary production stand upon its own basis, and to decide upon its character only from its contents. As a former production of Mr. Godwin, however, from the singular tenor of its doctrines, and the eccentric character of some of the sentiments, necessarily extorted some strictures from us in a former review, it is necessary to state that the present collection of essays are materially different from his *Political Justice*. The boldness and even the degree of dogmatism with which some of his schemes of innovation were advanced, are in this publication very properly avoided; and the subjects are of a more familiar nature, and many of them are better adapted to practice and utility.

Our review of Mr. Godwin's *Political Justice*\* sufficiently evinced that we were not actuated (as we can truly aver we never are) by any principle of personal hostility. On many topics we differed widely from our author; we expressed our dissent in plain but unprejudiced terms; while, on the contrary, we evinced that truth is acceptable to us from whatever quarter it comes; and though we may lament that it sometimes appears mingled with a considerable alloy of error, yet we are ever happy to draw the line of discrimination, and to avoid the unandid practice of condemning in the mass, because we cannot uniformly approve.

Some of Mr. Godwin's opinions we considered then as the exuberances and eccentricities of an ingenious mind; such as candid disquisition would refute, and such as his own riper judgment would correct. Some of his former notions he seems already to have discarded: and in the publication before us, he in general appears rather in the character of a sceptic than of a dogmatist. Like his former production, the present is of a mixed character; there is in it much ingenuity, and some excellent remarks: there are also some passages and opinions which we cannot approve.

The first part of the present volume relates principally to the important subject of education, and consists of sixteen distinct essays, through the whole chain of which the connection is not maintained in a strictly regular order. Their titles are—

\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. VII. p. 361, Vol. VIII. p. 290, Vol. IX. p. 147.

'Of awakening the Mind—Of the Utility of Talents—Of the Sources of Genius—Of an Early Taste for Reading—Of the Study of the Classics—Of Public and Private Education—Of the Happiness of Youth—Of the Communication of Knowledge—Of Cohabitation—Of Reasoning and Contention—Of Deception and Frankness—Of Manly Treatment and Behaviour—Of the Obtaining of Confidence—Of Choice in Reading—Of early Indications of Character.' p. xi.

In the third essay Mr. Godwin observes, in treating of genius, 'that some differences (in point of talent) are born with children, cannot be denied;' and indeed much of his reasoning in the subsequent essays is built upon the fact, that there is such a thing as natural genius, in opposition to the absurd fancy of Helvetius, that the talents of all men are naturally on an equality. In the sixteenth essay in particular, which treats on 'the early Indications of Character,' this topic is enlarged on with much ingenuity.

The author, however, though he admits a difference in point of natural talent, yet with much truth attributes a considerable effect to education in forming the character. 'That man brings a certain character with him (says he) into the world, is a point that must readily be conceded. The mistake is, that he brings an immutable character.' Natural genius, he observes, may be greatly quickened by cultivation, and it may also be blunted by neglect. 'The children of peasants have often a quickness of observation, an ingenuousness of character, and a delicacy of taste, at the age of seven years, the very traces of which are obliterated at fourteen.'

Mr. Godwin, in the fourth essay, very properly blames the temerity and conceit of modern philosophers—

'There is' (says he) 'an insanity among philosophers, that has brought philosophy itself into discredit. There is nothing in which this insanity more evidently displays itself, than in the rage of accounting for every thing.

'Nature well known, no prodigies remain,  
Comets are regular, and Wharton plain.

POPE.

'It may be granted that there is much of system in the universe; or, in other words, it must be admitted that a careful observer of nature will be enabled by his experience in many cases, from an acquaintance with the antecedent, to foretel the consequent.

'If one billiard-ball strike another in a particular manner, we have great reason to suppose that the result will be similar to what we have already observed in like instances. If fire be applied to gunpowder, we have great reason to expect an explosion. If the gunpowder be compressed in a tube, and a ball of lead be placed

over



over it nearer the mouth of the tube, we have great reason to suppose that the explosion will expel the ball, and cause it to move in the air in a certain curve. If the event does not follow in the manner we expected, we have great reason to suppose that, upon further examination, we shall find a difference in the antecedents correspondent to the difference in the consequents.

This uniformity of events and power of prediction constitute the entire basis of human knowledge.

But there is a regularity and system in the speculations of philosophers, exceeding any that is to be found in the operations of nature. We are too confident in our own skill, and imagine our science to be greater than it is. p. 19.

-To this kind of 'infamy' may be justly attributed the atheism and infidelity so prevalent in this superficial age. Because revelation has not explained every thing to these *Joi-difant* philosophers, they hastily conclude that it explains nothing; and, because they would willingly appear to their gaping admirers to know every thing, and yet cannot comprehend the nature of God, they as impudently as absurdly deny his existence. It was the advice of honest Bentley to a writer of this description—'Since by a little learning, and a huge conceit of himself, he hath lost his religion; let him try to find it again by harder study with a humbler mind.' (Bentley Phileuth. Lips.) We were pleased to find Mr. Godwin unite in reproving this dangerous quality.

-Our author condemns, with some reason, the austere and slavish mode of inculcating knowledge by the severity of punishment; yet we have great doubts whether children can possibly be induced to apply without some degree of coercion, particularly if classical learning is to be acquired, which, according to his own principles (see essay vi.), is a necessary branch of liberal education.

On the vicious and destructive practice of accustoming children from their earlier years to a series of falsehood and deception, our author's sentiments are pointed and good—

'The practice of deception is one of those vices of education that are most early introduced into the treatment of youth.

If the nurse find a difficulty in persuading the child to go to sleep, she will pretend to go to sleep along with it. If the parent wish his youngest son to go to bed before his brothers, he will order the elder ones up stairs, with a permission to return as soon as they can do it unobserved. If the mother is going out for a walk or a visit, she will order the child upon some pretended occasion to a distant part of the house, till she has made her escape.

'It is a deception too gross to be insisted on, to threaten children

dren with pretended punishments; that you will cut off their ears; that you will put them into the well; that you will give them to the old man; that there is somebody coming down the chimney to take them away.' P. 102.

The paragraph which succeeds, contains a piece of criticism very unworthy of the taste which Mr. Godwin has evinced on other occasions. The passage in the book of Proverbs—'The eye that mocketh at his father, and despiseth to obey his mother, the ravens of the valley shall pick it out, and the young eagles shall eat it,' was never certainly meant to be held out in a *literal* sense as a bug-bear to children, but is a most beautiful poetical expression, denoting the calamities that generally attend wicked and undutiful children. In Shakespeare this passage would have been admired.

The system of Rousseau is justly condemned by our author as a system of deception—

'His whole system of education is a series of tricks, a puppet-show exhibition, of which the master holds the wires, and the scholar is never to suspect in what manner they are moved. The scholar is never to imagine that his instructor is wiser than himself. They are to be companions; they are to enter upon their studies together; they are to make a similar progress; if the instructor drop a remark which facilitates their progress, it is to seem the pure effect of accident. While he is conducting a process of the most uncommon philosophical research, and is watching every change and motion of the machine, he is to seem in the utmost degree frank, simple, ignorant and undesigning.' P. 106.

Again—

'Rousseau has endeavoured to surmount this difficulty by the introduction of a fictitious equality. It is unnecessary perhaps to say more of his system upon the present occasion, than that it is a system of incessant hypocrisy and lying.' P. 120.

There is much ingenuity in the following observations on the mistakes which are often fallen into, concerning the moral tendency of particular books—

'What is the tendency of Homer's Iliad? The author seems to have designed it, as an example of the fatal consequences of discord among political allies. One of the effects it appears most conspicuously to have produced, is that of enhancing the false lustre of military achievements, and perpetuating the noxious race of heroes in the world.

'What is the tendency of Gulliver's Travels, particularly of that part which relates to the Houyhnhnms and Yahoos? It has frequently

frequently been affirmed to be, to inspire us with a loathing aversion to our species, and fill us with a frantic preference for the society of any class of animals, rather than of men. A poet of our own day [Hayley], as a suitable remuneration for the production of such a work, has placed the author in hell, and consigned him to the eternal torment of devils. On the other hand it has been doubted whether, under the name of Houyhnhnms and Yahoos, Swift has done any thing more than to exhibit two different descriptions of men, in their highest improvement and lowest degradation; and it has been affirmed that no book breathes more strongly a generous indignation against vice, and an ardent love of every thing that is excellent and honourable to the human heart.

‘There is no end to an enumeration of controversies of this sort. Authors themselves are no more infallible in this respect, than the men who read them. If the moral be invented first, the author did not then know where the brilliant lights of his story would fall, nor of consequence where its principal power of attraction would be found. If it be extracted afterwards, he is often taken at a disadvantage, and must extricate himself as he can.’  
P. 133.

We do not, however, agree in opinion with our author respecting that system of indiscriminate reading, in which he seems to think young persons may be indulged.

The titles of the remaining essays in this volume are—

‘Of Riches and Poverty—Of Avarice and Profusion—Of Beggars—Of Servants—Of Trades and Professions—Of Self-Denial—Of Personal Reputation—Of Posthumous Fame—Of Difference in Opinion—Of Politeness—Of Learning—Of English Style.’ P. xi.

The second essay of this part is very ingenious, and, we think, has no small share of novelty, particularly in the arguments against the common opinion, that to encourage luxury is to promote the general happiness—

‘Every man’ (says Mr. Godwin) ‘who invents a new luxury, adds so much to the quantity of labour entailed on the lower orders of society. The same may be affirmed of every man who adds a new dish to his table, or who imposes a new tax upon the inhabitants of his country. It is a gross and ridiculous error to suppose that the rich pay for any thing. There is no wealth in the world except this, the labour of man. What is misnamed wealth, is merely a power vested in certain individuals by the institutions of society, to compel others to labour for their benefit. So much labour is requisite to produce the necessities of life; so much more to produce those superfluities which at present exist in any country. Every new luxury is a new weight thrown into the scale. The

poor are scarcely ever benefited by this. It adds a certain portion to the mass of their labour; but it adds nothing to their conveniences. Their wages are not changed. They are paid no more now for the work of ten hours, than before for the work of eight. They support the burthen; but they come in for no share of the fruit. If a rich man employ the poor in breaking up land and cultivating its useful productions, he may be their benefactor. But, if he employ them in erecting palaces, in sinking canals, in laying out his parks, and modelling his pleasure-grounds, he will be found, when rightly considered, their enemy. He is adding to the weight of oppression, and the vast accumulation of labour, by which they are already sunk beneath the level of the brutes. His mistaken munificence spreads its baleful effects on every side; and he is entailing curses on men he never saw, and posterity yet unborn.' P. 177.

The essay 'on Servants' contains some good cautions to the rich, against encouraging the increase of a race of beings who in too many instances are in the condition, and retain too many of the ill qualities, of slaves. Of the succeeding essay, we cannot speak in so favourable terms. It is full of illiberal insinuations, and contains some direct aspersions. It is a foul calumny to characterise every tradesman, as a 'cold-hearted liar,' as one 'whose whole mind is buried in the sordid care of adding another guinea to his income,' as 'a supple, fawning, cringing creature,' who is 'so much in the habit of exhibiting a bended body, that he scarcely knows how to stand upright.' We have lived among tradesmen; and, as we can only judge from what we know, we aver that the great majority of those whom we have known, were at least as abhorrent of falsehood as Mr. Godwin, and that a more honourable and independent race of men does not exist than the traders of Great Britain. Whether they are of that sordid character or not, which Mr. Godwin would insinuate, let their liberality and generosity in the support of every charitable institution determine, upon the only solid basis of argument,—fact, and experience. In speaking of the physician, Mr. Godwin observes, that 'pain, sickness, and anguish, are his harvest. He rejoices that they have fallen upon any of his acquaintance'—*ergo*, there ought to be no person whose province and study should be to relieve pain, sickness, and anguish; but there is no man who is acquainted with the liberal spirit of that truly respectable and scientific body of men, the medical profession, who will not, from his own knowledge, repel with indignation the base aspersion contained in the last sentence of the quotation. Against the lawyers, the

the old objection, so ably refuted by Dr. Johnson, is revived, that they must do the best for their client, whether his cause be good or bad; and that they are men 'who have nothing to do with general and impartial reason.' With equal force of argument, our author divides the divines into two classes, viz, a set of cunning impostors, who only 'play a solemn farce of hypocrisy;' or a stupid and illiterate race, on whom 'not a doubt ever ventures to obtrude itself.'

There is a similar spirit of illiberality evinced in the ninth essay: and Mr. Godwin's own example might be quoted to prove that a man may be 'a bigot,' and an intolerant bigot, without being a Christian; indeed the greatest and the blindest bigots we have the misfortune to know, are among unbelievers. Mr. Godwin will do well, if his book should reach a second edition, to expunge from it the trite and pointless sarcasms against religion, with which he has injudiciously interlarded it: they create disgust, without producing conviction.—If he wishes to attack religion, let him write a work purposely on the subject.—He will then either convince or be refuted; he will either have answerers or disciples; in the present case his fanaticism (for fanaticism it certainly is) will only serve to discourage serious persons from a perusal of his publication; and what is really worthy of attention in it, will be disregarded, from a suspicion that the whole is meant as a vehicle for the abuse of what the majority of this nation consider, and we trust ever will consider, as their ultimate and best consolation.

The best essay in the volume is unquestionably the twelfth and last, 'Of English Style.' Indeed we have always been of opinion, that Mr. Godwin's *forte* is polite literature.—His reading in the departments of politics and theology is not sufficiently extensive to qualify him for assuming the professor's chair on either of those sciences; but he is a man of taste and genius, whose studies have evidently been chiefly directed to the modern languages and modern publications, and to those in particular which are termed works of imagination. As a novellist, as a critic in the belles lettres, probably as a dramatic writer, Mr. Godwin will excel; and if he regards his own reputation, and rightly estimates his own talents, he will quit the barren track of polemics, and cultivate an imagination which is certainly capable of great and vigorous exertions, and of producing works of taste and fancy that may amuse and delight not only his contemporaries but posterity.

*The History of the Parishes of Whiteford, and Holywell.*  
4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. B. and J. White. 1796.

THOSE who recollect the publication of the literary life of the late Thomas Pennant \*, must have been surprised at the appearance of a new work from the pen of that gentleman. The approach of old age induced him to form a resolution of closing his career as an author: he was content with the fame which he had acquired, and was probably apprehensive that it might be diminished by future attempts. But the rage of writing again seized him; and he had not the firmness to adhere to his declarations. His apparition stalks forth from the *mausoleum* of Downing; and the attention of the world is called to the fruits of his resurrection.

This volume contains a circumstantial account of two parishes in the county of Flint. It commences with a description of Downing (or Eden-Owain), the seat of Mr. Pennant, built in the reign of Charles I.

With frivolous minuteness, he informs us that the *yellow room* in this house was the scene of his birth; and mentions the names of the midwife, of the lady into whose hands she delivered him, and of the woman by whom he was nursed. An intimation of the particular times at which he began to speak and to walk would have been a suitable accompaniment of such intelligence. These trivial communications argue a preponderance of vanity over judgment.

A tedious account is given of the author's ancestors and relatives; and, in the true spirit of a Welshman, he boasts of the antiquity of his family. Mostyn-Hall is afterwards described. This house is not distinguished by beauty, elegance, or uniformity: but it contains some good paintings, various antiques, and an excellent library, in which are many valuable manuscripts. At Gloddaeth, another seat of the Mostyn family, there is also a good library, consisting chiefly of old English history and Welsh manuscripts.

A curious remain of antiquity is mentioned, as standing in good preservation in the township of Whiteford-Garn. On a hill which commands an extensive prospect, the Romans erected a *pharos* or light-house, of which, for the gratification of antiquaries, we subjoin Mr. Pennant's account—The form of this building

‘ Is circular; the inner diameter twelve feet and a half; the thickness of the walls four feet four inches. The doors, or entrances, are opposite to each other; over each is a square funnel,

\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. VIII. p. 296.

like a chimney, which opens on the outside, about half-way up the building. On each side is a window. About four feet from the ground are three circular holes, lined with mortar, as is frequent in Roman buildings; and penetrate the whole wall, for purposes now unknown.

‘ Within side are the vestiges of a stair-case, which led to the floors, of which there appear to have been two. Along such part of the upper, which was conspicuous from the channel, are eight small square openings, cased with free-stone (the rest of the building being of rude lime-stone, bedded in hard mortar) and each of these were separated by wooden pannels, placed in deep grooves, the last still in a perfect state. In each of these partitions were placed the lights, which the Romans thought necessary to keep distinct, or to prevent from running into one, lest they should be mistaken by seamen for a star. *Periculum in corruptione ignium, no scias existimatur.*

‘ To the building is very evidently a broad and raised road, pointing from the east; and near its upper end are the marks of a trench, which surrounded and gave protection to this useful edifice. It certainly had in later times been repaired, or perhaps applied to some other use, for in one part is a piece of timber which could not have been aboriginal.’ P. 112.

The mineral advantages of the parish of Whiteford are not inconsiderable. Some lead-mines are profitably worked: calamine is found in abundance: zinc, vulgarly called *black jack*, is also plentiful; and lime-stone, spars, &c. are frequently discovered. The collieries of Mostyn and Bychton are now in the most flourishing state in which the author ever remembers to have known them; inferior only to that in which they were about the beginning of the present century.

As the landed property of Mr. Pennant has given him opportunities of acquiring a knowledge of husbandry, he has treated that subject with apparent accuracy. He and his neighbours do not seem to have been pleased at the appearance of a missionary among them from the board of agriculture. They did not think this intruder capable of instructing them in the principles of good farming; but they did not persecute him, as if he had been a religious missionary. In the dispute concerning the preference of small to great farms, our author takes part with the advocates of the latter. ‘Unavoidable scarcities (he says) will happen, from causes inevitable;’ but there never has been ‘a famine in England since the introduction of great farms.’ Will he affirm, however, that the consolidators or accumulators of farms do not, by their selfish arts, enhance the price of the necessaries of life? This, certainly, is a great evil, which loudly calls for redress.

Leaving,

Leaving, for a time, his native parish, this minute topographer expatiates on that of Holywell. Arriving at the ruins of the abbey and castle of Basingwerk, he traces the course of Wat's dyke, which has generally been confounded with the celebrated dyke of Offa, the Mercian king, though Churchyard, the poet, has made a proper distinction between these works, and has intimated that the intervening space was free ground, where the Britons and Saxons might safely meet for the purposes of traffic.

Of the castle of Basingwerk, few vestiges are discoverable; but there are considerable remains of the abbey. Mr. Pennant, for the honour of his countrymen, attributes the foundation of this structure to one of the princes of Wales, rather than to Randal, earl of Chester, or king Henry II. but he admits, that the earl was the first person whose liberality rendered the establishment respectable.

'The architecture of the abbey (he says) is mixed. Here appears what is called Saxon; having the round arches and short columns in some parts; and the Gothic narrow slip of high-pointed windows in others. The best species had not fallen out of use, and the last was coming into fashion, in the days of the first great benefactor. The church lay on the east side; but is now almost destroyed. The refectory is pretty entire; and on one side has a great recess, with two round arches. The pillars which support them are very curious, formed of circular stones of the form of cheeses, set close one upon the other. Above were the cells for the lodgings of the monks, with a small window to each. The chapel of the knights templars is a spacious building. The windows are long, narrow, and pointed; the pilasters between them on the inside slender and elegant. Whatever monuments or inscriptions might have been in the church, are totally destroyed, unless that which may be found in one of the out-houses. It preserves the memory of a pious emigrant of the last century, George, youngest and eighth son of William second lord Petre, who, plagued with the fanatical persecutions in the reign of Charles I. quitted his country, died at Wexford, and was brought to Basingwerk for interment.'

p. 195.

In this parish some important works are carried on. The buildings appropriated to the copper-works are pronounced 'stupendous in expense, extent, and ingenuity of contrivance;' and those which are used for the manufacture of cotton, are spacious and extremely commodious. These works are supplied with water from that spring which procured to the neighbouring town the denomination of *Holy-well*.



'The spring' (says Mr. Pennant) 'boils with vast impetuosity out of a rock, and is confined in a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch, supported by pillars. The roof is most exquisitely carved in stone. Immediately over the fountain is the legend of St. Wenefrede, on a pendent projection, with the arms of England at the bottom. Numbers of fine ribs secure the arch, whose intersections are coupled with a sculpture.

'Some are mere works of fancy; grotesque figures of animals: but the rest allude chiefly to the Stanley family. This building, and the chapel over it, rose from the piety of that great house, which left these memorials of its benefactions: there are besides some marks of the illustrious donors; for example, the profile of Margaret, mother to Henry VII. and that of her husband the earl of Derby, cut on the same stone." p. 219.

This sacred well was long frequented by devout invalids, who deemed the waters sanative of every disorder; and offerings of various kinds testified the gratitude of patients for supposed relief. This species of superstition is now on the decline; but it is not extinct; for, though some visit the place for the mere purpose of bathing, others still trust to the imputed sanctity of the spot, arising from the legendary martyrdom of St. Wenefrede.

'In the summer' (we are informed) 'still a few are to be seen in the water in deep devotion up to their chins for hours, sending up their prayers, or performing a number of evolutions round the polygonal well; or threading the arch between well and well a prescribed number of times. I am sorry to say that this excess of piety has cost several devotees their lives. Few people of rank at present honor the fountain with their presence. A crowned head in the last age dignified the place with a visit. The prince who lost three kingdoms for a rhafe, paid his respects, on August 29th 1686, to our saint; and received as a reward a present of the very shift in which his great-grand mother Mary Stuart lost her head. This prince gave, in the course of his progress, as marks of his favor, golden rings, with his hair platted beneath a crystal.' p. 230.

This volume does not abound with interesting information; nor is it so amusing as some of the former productions of Mr. Pennant. Those readers, however, who are pleased with local details, may be disposed to think more favourably of the work. We are not insensible of the utility of provincial and parochial history; but we wish to see it less encumbered with superfluity.

*Sermons by James Gillespie, D. D. late Principal of St. Mary's College, in the University of St. Andrews. Published from the Author's Manuscript. By George Hill, D. D. 8vo. 6s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1796,*

**T**HESE sermons do not seem to have been intended for publication; and the friends of the author have not, by producing them, consulted in the best manner for his posthumous reputation. According to the editor's account, Dr. Gillespie was not only a very respectable divine, but he had a claim to some merit as a speaker. Thus he spoke of him in a funeral sermon—

'A few days ago we laid in the dust, a venerable man, an able minister of the New Testament, of whose labours in the gospel it was the privilege of this congregation long to reap the benefit; and whose mouth distilled words of comfort, instruction, and persuasion, the salutary impression of which, many, I trust, who hear me, will never lose. Such of us as saw the vigour of his days, remember the delight with which we hung upon his lips; the grace of his elocution; the interesting, devotional, pathetic style of his discourses. We have often felt the effect which the combined power of his voice, his action, and his matter produced on the minds of his hearers; we were accustomed to admire the elegance and judgment with which, in a few well chosen sentences, he expressed what some special occasion required: we have witnessed the ardour with which, at solemn seasons, his soul seemed to glow; and while he spake, the fire has burned within us.' p. ii.

Of the effect produced by the voice and action of the deceased, we cannot judge: but from the specimens of the matter now before us, it is evident, that though good plain moral truths are constantly inculcated, very little attention was paid to elegance of style or composition. In the choice of words he must have been remarkably unfortunate. The phrases of shrewdly conjecturing, — of God not *fearing* us with visions and messengers from the other world, — of a thing *quadrating* with another, — of reflections *whetting* our appetites, — of an atheist *catching* the thing by the wrong *handle*, — of a hand-writing *deleted* by the nails that pierced his hands and feet, and a variety of similar ones, are scarcely suited to the dignity of this species of composition. The apostle Paul is to be respected for his resolution and cheerfulness; his writings are eminently pious and serious; but we little expected to hear them described as 'eminently distinguished by a spirit of *mirsh* and *cheerfulness*.' The author is fond of Latin words; thus we must have *desiderata*, instead of desiring; and 'a strange *incogitancy* and *thoughtlessness*' are coupled together. 'There

is no doubting of a providence,' is one sentence; which will hardly be received in Edinburgh. We must not only look back, but calmly *recognise* the past; for whatever may happen in future to others,—this does not mend the matter with you.'

As a specimen of skill in metaphors, we shall select one to puzzle, for a moment, our readers—

'If a wicked man should so far overcome his disaffection to the truths of the gospel, as to yield close attention to them, how little benefit does he reap! His mind, darkened with the impure streams of its own corruption, comprehends not the light; like the black cloth which absorbs the brightest sun beams without reflecting any.'

p. 166.

For the sublime, let the following suffice—

'When sin shall prevail in spite of this greatest and last effort, mercy has gone its utmost length; the destruction then to ensue will be final and everlasting; the world that was deluged by the flood will be burnt up with fire; and then the judgment shall take place. But the heavens and earth which are now, by the same word are kept in store, reserved unto fire against the day of judgment. In which day, says the text, the heavens shall pass away with great noise; horrible explosion! the elements shall melt with fervent heat; fire devouring the other elements: or the stars, as the word may be rendered, melting shall drop from their exalted orbits. The earth and the works that are therein shall be burnt; dreadful conflagration! Burnt up! No monument left to tell they had been! No rock or mountain to cover the wicked! Good for them, if the wicked were burnt up too! This great world, one horrid wreck! This vast expanse, one desolate waste, again without form and void! It is then, the New Testament tells us, that the end cometh. In the midst of this combustion, the last trumpet shall sound; the voice of the archangel shall be heard: the Lord shall come with clouds; before him fire wasting; the storms shall compass him about. They that are in their graves shall arise: they that are alive shall be changed: the books shall be opened: the quick and dead shall be judged: the wicked shall go away into everlasting burning, flames to them never to be extinguished, the smoke of their torment to ascend for ever and ever: but the righteous into life eternal: for them are the new heavens and the new earth.—The end of the world is the evening when the great householder shall reckon with the labourers.' p. 371.

We cannot then, from our views of elegance and judgment, join in the editor's opinion of these discourses. They might have been well preserved in manuscript for the use of the younger preachers: but, unless for the persons who associate

the voice and manner of the author with some favourite discourses, they have not had sufficient pruning and correcting for the taste of an enlightened and attentive public.

*Rudiments of Political Science, Part the First; containing Elementary Principles; with an Appendix. By Angus Macaulay, A. M. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Egerton. 1796.*

THIS volume, which is introductory to a large and comprehensive discussion, bids fair to gratify the liberal of all parties. The author appears to be fettered by no system: and although many of his opinions may seem to lean towards what is called the democratic side, that must be considered as no small earnest of an independence of mind and an unbiassed search after truth, in one who is so bold as to rank among unfounded theories, Montesquieu's system respecting the influence of climate,—Hume's doctrine concerning the natural inferiority of the inhabitants of all that part of the globe which lies between the tropics,—Roussau's paradoxes in recommendation of ignorance and barbarism,—Mably's declamations in favour of a common participation or an equal division of property,—and some other works which have more or less gained the approbation of the *new* philosophers.

The subjects discussed in the present volume are, the Origin of Civil Government; the Necessity of Civil Government; the Ends of it; and the Right of it; Political Resistance; Individual Consent; and Forms of Government in general. To these is subjoined an Appendix, containing an account of some governments of the American Indians, as reported by some of the earliest discoverers, or by subsequent travellers; some unaccountable customs found in America, which were exactly similar to customs anciently prevalent in Asia and Europe; the political condition of women in several rude nations, as recorded in history, altogether different from the theory on that subject in some modern systems; the zeal of Alexander the Great to pass for the son of Jupiter, illustrated; and remarks on the classifications or divisions of forms of government by Plato, Socrates, and Aristotle.

We shall endeavour to give an outline of our author's sentiments on these topics. He divides the theorists on the origin of civil government into two classes, the one who have assumed a divine command as the original foundation of civil government; the other, who suppose mankind to have existed as solitary and unconnected individuals, in independence and equality, until circumstances, in process of time, induced them to form voluntary associations. Notwithstanding some

advantages which have resulted from a discussion of the comparative merits of these two theories, he thinks it of much greater importance to trace the actual progress of society in different countries, and to investigate the successive changes which it has undergone, together with the various modifications which it has assumed under different circumstances, as far as these interesting objects of inquiry can be ascertained by historical evidence. The necessity of civil government he rests upon the expediency of union and concert among men for various important purposes, and on the follies and crimes of mankind. Whether, if mankind were universally wise and virtuous, civil government might not be dispensed with, he very properly considers as an useless inquiry. He brings proof that the American Indians, notwithstanding their apparent equality, and the simplicity of their mode of living, do not furnish an exception to the necessity of civil government; and that despotic governments were generally prevalent in America at the time of its discovery. On this latter part of the argument, however, he speaks guardedly, assuming only, that there are various considerations, which furnish the highest probability, if not an absolute certainty, that the ancient governments of America had uniformly partaken more of the despotism which was found established in some tribes, than of the equality which prevails in others at present. His authorities form the contents of the first part of the Appendix, and in our opinion are in favour of the author's position. This subject leads him next to controvert Dr. Robertson's attempt to reconcile the existence of several despotic governments in America, with the doctrines of Rousseau's romantic theory of a state of nature. On this head, it is undeniable that 'the state of nature, a supposed acquaintance with which the framers of Rousseau's system have assumed as the foundation of their theory, is altogether imaginary.' With equal truth, he contends that the arguments drawn from the state of the North American Indians have generally run in what the logicians call a vicious circle. 'They first conclude from the rudeness and simplicity of the arts of life among those Indians, that they enjoy the liberty, independence, and equality, which the system assumes to be the natural portion of all savage tribes; and they afterwards adduce the supposed freedom of these very Indians, as an example, in confirmation of the original hypothesis, from the assumed certainty of which, they had previously concluded that those Indians must be living in a state of freedom.' Mr. Macaulay then enters into a full refutation of Dr. Robertson's positions, which forms none of the least interesting articles of the work. As a conclusion, he endeavours to prove that America was probably first peopled from

from the north-east of Asia; that the first American colonists would probably preserve or imitate the political institutions of the country which they had left, and that this historical account of the origin of American despotism is much more natural and probable than Dr. Robertson's theoretic account. In this attempt, our author proceeds part of the way upon sure historical ground; in the rest he depends chiefly on conjecture; but being founded upon just analogy, it must be allowed to rise to a high degree of probability. Besides his primary object, to prove that the case of the American Indians does not form an exception to the necessity of civil government, another inducement for this long historical discussion and controversy with Robertson and Rousseau, was to endeavour to withdraw one of its principal supports from the system which connects freedom with barbarism and ignorance; and slavery and despotism with knowledge, civility, and improvement; a system which he holds to be as dangerous as it is romantic and unfounded; and which, if any nation should ever become absurd enough to attempt to reduce its doctrines to practice, would soon produce the most deplorable effects. He admits, however, in favour of Rousseau, that while the partisans of his theory supported its principles but shrunk from their consequences, Rousseau had the bold spirit to avow the system with all its inferences, absurd or inconsistent, although, as Mr. Macaulay adds, his avowal of paradoxes cannot justly entitle him to the august name of philosopher.

Having now proved the necessity of civil government, he proceeds, in Chap. III. to its ends. He had just laid down as a first principle in the science of politics, 'that civil government is necessary;' and he now explains the nature of that necessity, and consequently lays down, as his second principle, that 'political happiness is the great end of civil government.' This end obviously divides itself into two branches; one consists in promoting virtue by the diffusion of knowledge, the discouragement of vice, and the distinction of merit; the other consists in restraining and punishing crimes, in order, as far as possible, to prevent the ignorance and wickedness of some from injuring or annoying others, either collectively or individually. In the course of this chapter, the author is led to consider the various definitions of political or civil liberty. He defines civil liberty in these words; 'A man's civil liberty consists in his unlimited freedom to adopt that plan of life, or to pursue those measures, which he conceives to be conducive to his happiness, accompanied with the secure enjoyment of the fruits of his industry; but under the restriction, imposed by civil government, of refraining from all injury to others.' We have no objection to this definition, as a definition of civil

vil liberty; but we demur when we find our author argue that the division of liberty into civil and political is unnecessary. It is not unnecessary in argument, because it exists in fact. Dissenters and Roman Catholics enjoy *civil* liberty, such as Mr. Macaulay has defined it; but the liberty they do not enjoy is that which is termed *political*; and this is a distinction which ought to be made, because it is very obvious, and has given rise to abundance of controversies.

He objects to Montesquieu's definition, as too general and inapplicable to the subject; and to Dr. Price's, as wanting accuracy and precision. The freedom of a political community from subjection to foreign power or control, constitutes its *independence*, and not its civil liberty; the latter is properly internal with respect to the community; whereas the former respects the connection of a country with some foreign government. He thinks that Dr. Price was led away by the ardour of his zeal to justify the conduct of the British colonies in America, and, at the time of writing his *Observations on Civil Liberty*, to have lost sight of the design of civil government. From him, Mr. Macaulay passes to Mr. Locke, whose definition he thinks more correct, and that Dr. Priestley has been unsuccessful in attempting to refine on it. He is more favourable to the definition adopted by the constituent assembly of France, but objects that it does not express the proper connection between civil liberty and civil government. The consideration of *property* naturally follows; but although the author's ideas are clear and explicit, we do not see much of novelty in them.

In Chap. IV. he enters upon 'the right of civil government.' The chief points established or attempted to be established in this chapter, are, that the original right of some to exercise civil government over others, was derived from the consent of the governed; that the subsequent right of civil government, as well as the original, is derived from consent, to the exclusion of all other pretensions, namely, possession, inheritance, custom, or prescription, ancient consent or stipulation, public virtue of political rulers, or expediency: and the result of the whole is his third principle in the science of politics, namely, that 'the consent of political communities exclusively confers the right of civil government.' As a specimen of his mode of reasoning, we select the first section of this chapter—

'Some writers have attempted to reprobate the doctrine of the rights of man; and others to turn it into ridicule. These attempts seem to have been chiefly provoked by apprehensions of alarming consequences resulting from a discussion of the subject; and we may

may add, by erroneous statements of human rights and false deductions from them. But erroneous explanations, or ill-judged applications, can never justify the total rejection of an important truth. If zeal for liberty has often served, as a pretext to the factions and ambitious, or even to the partisans of disorder and licentiousness; or if its principles have been misunderstood, or designedly misrepresented; is civil liberty on that account to be stigmatized, as hostile to civil society? If the desire of accumulating wealth has often proved the source of fraud, oppression, and other crimes; and if the laws enacted for the security of property have been sometimes perverted to the contrary purposes; is mankind on that account to be taught, that the sacred barriers of justice ought to be broken down; and all right of property to be confounded, and property itself attempted to be equalized by violence? If governments have sometimes propagated doctrines adverse to political happiness, and have abused their authority and power, by perverting them to the purposes of tyranny; is it thence to be inferred, that all civil government ought to be destroyed, and mankind involved in the miseries of universal anarchy? Do the acknowledged absurdities and mischievous effects of superstition vindicate a renunciation of all religion? Do they render consistent with benevolence and wisdom the attempts of those, who aim at introducing universal scepticism? Instead of attempting to undermine, or overthrow the general doctrine of the rights of man; it would be more laudable and useful to endeavour to establish the genuine principles, on which this doctrine is founded, to expose and confute every absurd and erroneous conclusion, which may have been drawn from it, by the injudicious, or designing; and at the same time, to deduce its fair and useful consequences.

‘Has man any rights? This vague question must be the result either of ignorance, inattention, or insidiousness. Rights universally have a necessary reference to the conduct of others; that is, the rights of any being must be understood to refer to what other beings ought to perform, or to abstain from performing, relatively to the being of whom the rights are predicated. Rights therefore, and justice or injustice of conduct; or in other words, rights and duty are correlative terms: and before a precise answer can be returned to a question respecting the rights of any person or being whatever, those persons or beings must be specified, to whose conduct the question was intended to refer. Has man any rights relatively to the conduct of other men? One might as well ask, whether there were any rules of justice, or duty, which men are bounden to observe towards each other. I may have no right to existence relatively to my creator; but having received so valuable a gift, it would be unjust in my neighbour to deprive me of life, without a sufficient reason: I may therefore be said to have a right to my life relatively to the conduct of my neighbour. Has a man



any rights, relatively to the conduct of the political rulers of his country? or has the collective community any such rights? Or, on the other hand, have those, who hold the government of a country any rights, relatively to the conduct of the rest of the community? This is precisely the same thing as to ask, If there are any rules of justice and duty, to which the governors and the governed in a political community are reciprocally bounden to adhere in their conduct towards each other, whether individually or collectively? In like manner, when industry was stated to confer the original right of separate property; the meaning obviously was, that the labour exerted was the circumstance, which constituted the injustice of taking from a man the fruit of his industry.

‘ From this explanation it clearly follows, that to say “all men have equal rights,” is to use a phrase, which has no determinate meaning, as it contains no reference to the conduct of any, whose duty may be understood to be pointed out. If, by the equality of the rights of all men, it be understood, that all the members of a political community have equal rights, relatively to the conduct of their political rulers; the assertion is inaccurate: a variety of circumstances too obvious to require to be specified, may occasion a considerable difference to prevail, between the duties, which the government of a country owes to different individuals; and a correspondent difference must obtain, between the rights of those individuals relatively to the government.

‘ If by equality of rights, it be understood, that all individuals in civil society have equal rights, relatively to the conduct of all other individuals; the assertion is still more inaccurate, than when understood in the preceding sense. It is well known, that the duties of individuals in society are infinitely various, according to the various relations, which subsist between them; and to numberless circumstances, which occur in human life: and the rights of men are evidently as various as the duties, which correspond to them. The rights of men, relatively to the conduct of other men, are only equal, when all their reciprocal duties are alike. Hence, perhaps, there are few men in any country, whose rights are precisely equal, either relatively to civil government, or to their fellow citizens, whether collectively or individually. All the circumstances and relations of men must be precisely alike, before their rights and duties, with respect to others, can be asserted to be equal.’  
R. 119.

From a concise train of reasoning in Chap. V. he deduces a fourth fixed principle in politics, ‘that political resistance is criminal.’ This principle he endeavours to qualify, so as to preserve alike the interests of the governors and the governed; but he is neither so correct nor full on this subject, as it seemed to require. The subject, indeed, is the most delicate that  
occurs

occurs in the science of politics. Tender minds admit the doctrine, but shrink from it. The licentious are perpetually obtruding it, when not wanted; and the great misfortune is that it seldom comes to be discussed until the contending parties have lost temper and confidence in each other, and violence is substituted for argument.

In inquiring into the nature of individual consent, he discards alike the state of nature and the fiction of the social compact; and contends that it is not now left optional to a man whether he will belong to civil society or not; residence determining the political community to which a man belongs. All this seems very obvious; but he adds, that, in order that residence may be an indication of consent, the citizen must be at liberty to depart. A supposed right in civil government to enforce involuntary residence, is not necessary to the ends of civil government; nor is such right inherent in the nature of civil government. From the arguments used in this chapter (VI.) he infers his fifth principle in the science of politics, that 'to enforce the permanent residence of the members of a political community, is, with certain exceptions which he specifies, unwarrantable and unjust, unfavourable to the happiness of civil society, and incompatible with the fundamental right of civil government.'

The remaining part of the present volume consists of some observations on the forms of government and constitutions; but as this is merely introductory to what will be hereafter published, we shall only notice that he concludes with laying down a sixth principle in politics, namely, 'that national characters are chiefly, if not wholly, produced by forms of government and constitutions, together with general education.' The articles in the Appendix are illustrative of the doctrines already laid down. The whole is well deserving the consideration of men of liberal and enlarged minds, and who are convinced that the errors which have crept into political systems, and the popular mischiefs which arise from them, must be combated by argument, and not by force.

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*A complete Dictionary of Farriery and Horsemanship, containing the Art of Farriery in all its Branches, with an Explanation of the Terms, and a Description of the various Particulars relating to the Manage, and to the Knowledge of Horses. The Whole compiled from the best Authors, by James Hunter, Veterinarian. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Baldwin. 1796.*

'THE great utility and value of that noble animal the horse' (says Mr. Hunter in his Advertisement)—'the many diseases to which he is subject by nature, and the still greater number of accidents

accidents to which he is continually exposed in his state of servitude to mankind — the extreme ignorance and stupidity which is every day displayed by those who profess the art of farriery, and the numerous errors and imperfections to be found in works of a similar nature, all combine to render an apology for this publication unnecessary.

\* In treating of the various diseases and accidents to which horses are liable, I have endeavoured, in the first place, to ascertain their *seat*; secondly, their causes; thirdly, their different varieties, or kinds, and the symptoms that distinguish them; and fourthly, the method of cure, whether manual or medical, with the proper regimen to be observed during the time it is effecting.

\* But a knowledge of the nature, and the effects likely to be produced by the medicines employed for the removal of any disease, being, in my opinion, a matter of equal importance with a knowledge of the disease itself, I have introduced, in their proper places, accurate descriptions of the principal drugs which the farrier has occasion to make use of; and in doing this, have endeavoured to point out — 1, the places where they are produced, and in what manner; 2, the different methods that are employed to adulterate them, and how to detect any frauds of that kind; 3, their most striking medical properties, and the proper doses of the most active, with the various preparations from each article, which are kept in the shops; and lastly, the manner of making the most important and useful of them.

\* This has been a laborious undertaking; but its utility must be obvious, and will ensure the present work a decided preference over every other of the same description.

\* In the horseman's department, every thing relative to breeding, breaking, dieting, exercising, feeding, hunting, racing, riding, shoeing, stabling, &c. will be found carefully inserted. The different terms used in the manage are explained; and the furniture and appurtenances of both horse and rider are described in the most plain and intelligible manner, and so that every one may understand them.

\* And as in the writing a pompous and circumlocutory phraseology has been studiously avoided, for the better comprising the work in a small size; so for the same purpose in the printing a small type has been chosen; by which means, what might easily have been swelled by an avaricious bookseller in two handsome volumes, worth twelve or fourteen shillings, is here brought into the compass of one, at less than half the price.' P. iii.

Notwithstanding what the editor has here offered in his own behalf, we find the general objections made to a preceding article \* doubly applicable to that now under consideration. In fact, we do not find that he has been attentive "to

reject what is superfluous or erroneous, to condense what is diffuse, and to add what is new ;' but, on the contrary, in many instances at least, has compiled from the worst sources, introduced articles that might well have been retrenched, and introduced others, on material subjects, in so contracted a form as to render them nearly useless. An instance of the latter we shall exhibit to our readers in the article

\* *Horse-Feeder.* One that has the *feeding* and management of horses, particularly *running* ones. In order to perform this well, the person to whom it is entrusted should pay some regard to the following particulars :

\* I. If the horse *refuses* part of the food which it is thought necessary to give him while he is training, it must not be forced upon him in too great quantities at once, but by a little at a time, and that only when he is very hungry, by which means it is probable he will soon take a liking to it, and eat it freely ; but when that comes to be the case, he should not be too freely indulged with it, as it is better for him to have rather less than he seems to crave, and sometimes it may be mixed with such other food as he is known to be fond of, by which means he will soon become equally fond of the one with the other.

\* II. If a horse in training discovers any symptoms of lameness, or being tender footed, he should be rode only on smooth turf, and kept as much as possible off strong grounds, hard roads, and from among ruts, by which means his feet will be kept more cool, and he will be in much better plight to encounter the fatigues of running when he comes upon the course.

\* III. The condition of his body must be particularly attended to, so that he may be pretty high in flesh that is good and hard, without having any inward foulness ; and in this case the feeder must consider the shape and make of the horse's body before he passes a decisive judgment, for there are some that look round, plump, and in good condition (owing to their natural form, and being closely knit together) that are in reality, very poor and bare of flesh, while, at the same time, others will seem raw-boned, slender, and poverty-stricken, that are fat, foul, and full of gross humours. This, however, is easily discovered, by handling the horse about his ribs, but particularly the hindmost ones, where, if the flesh feels soft and loose, and the fingers sink easily therein, no doubt can be entertained but he is foul, and must be brought into better order by dint of physic and exercise. If it is a stallion, the feeder may form a pretty good idea of the state of his body by the appearance of his stones, for if they hang low down from his body, he is generally out of heart or condition, and either sick, or full of greasy and foul humours ; but if they are trussed up close to his belly, and lie in a small compass, it shews him to be healthy and in good order.

\* IV. Be-

• IV. Before he runs any match or race, the feeder should supple his legs from the knees and gambrels downward with neat's-foot oil, or some good hog's grease, working it well in with his hands, but without any artificial heat, as, what cannot be got in at the first rubbing, will at the second or third, on which account, the friction should be continued night and morning for several days, though there will seldom be any necessity of applying the oil or grease to the legs more than once.

• V. If a running horse towards the latter end of his feeding, is found to be clear from grease and other foulness, a handful of oatmeal may be put into his water whenever he drinks, which will have a tendency to help his wind, and is, besides, extremely wholesome in other respects.

• VI. Above all other things, he must proportion the different degrees of exercise to the strength of the horse, and have a particular regard to the symptoms produced thereby, as nothing more clearly points out the state of a horse's general health than those; for if he sweats with gentle and moderate exercise, it shews that he is fair, fowl, and wants either physic or more regular exercise, or perhaps both, or if, when he labours hard, the sweat resembles soap suds, it still indicates that he is foul, but if it is black, and appears only as if water had been thrown on him, it indicates that he is clean and in good plight for running.

• VII. If the hair on his neck or other parts that are generally uncovered, lies smooth and close, and is of a shining colour, it betokens that he is in good case, but if it appears rough, staring, and discoloured, he must be warmer clothed and better fed than he has lately been, or little can be expected from him when he comes to be tried on the course.

Connected with the foregoing subject, and really of importance, is the article BEANS; the effects of which, as an artice of food for horses, have never been sufficiently ascertained. This, however, is comprised in a very few lines.

Of articles that might have been omitted without detriment to the work, either because they are wholly foreign to the subject on which it treats, or have not been considered in that view, we find a sufficient number in the first half dozen leaves. We will mention, as instances, AIR—ALE—ALMONDS—ANATOMY—AQUA-FORTIS—Ass, &c. As practical hints on the first of these, we are told, that—

• Air passing over stiff clayey ground, is *moist* and *thick*; on dry and sandy grounds, it is *dry* and *dusty*; dry and pure on stony; and on the tops of high hills it is thin, free from vapour, but cold; in vallies it is gross, impure, and hot, except in winter, at which time it is coldest there on account of the adjacent hills overshadowing them if they are considerably high. On the sides of hills the  
air

air is generally pure, and moderate in temperature; and in an open country such as is proper for hunting, it is for the most part moderate in all its qualities of heat, cold, moisture, and dryness.

The terms *moist*, *thick*, and *dry*, when applied to the atmosphere, we certainly can form some idea of; but it is for the sagacity of Mr. Hunter only to make out, what state of air that is, which he calls '*duffy*.' The article *Anatomy* occupies about half a column. Though certainly useless to the reader in its present form, it is somewhat excusable on account of the well-meant insinuation conveyed in it, that the study of the anatomy of the horse is essentially necessary to the improvement of the veterinary art. The process for making aqua-fortis, our readers will agree with us, might very well have given place to an account of its effects as a topical remedy. What is said of the ass, might have been spared altogether, as the editor has confined himself entirely to the natural history of that animal, and that in a very cursory and imperfect way.

Amongst the formulæ, we find an old fashioned pharmaceutical *melange*, under the title of APOSTLE'S ointment. After detailing the recipe, Mr. Hunter very shrewdly remarks, that 'it is called the apostle's ointment, from the number of dry ingredients that compose it.'

Mr. Hunter accounts for 'foundering in the feet,' from causes which 'excite malignant humours, that inflame the blood, melt the grease, and make it descend downwards to the feet, where it settles, and causes a numbness in the hoofs.' This is rather the language of an illiterate blacksmith, than an enlightened veterinarian! With submission to Mr. Hunter, we rather suppose that foundering in horses arises from a gradual distortion of the shape of the foot from bad shoeing, and the vile practice of cutting away those parts which nature intended should keep the heels expanded. If this be true, (and we believe the veterinary college will support our opinion) Mr. Hunter's instructions to pare the horse's soles, and pour in a hot composition of tallow, &c. are highly pernicious.

What has been here said, our readers will no doubt consider as palpable evidence of the many and great faults discoverable in the work before us, and also of its general insufficiency as a dictionary of farriery. It would be uncandid, however, not to acknowledge that some of its parts are unexceptionable. To distinguish which these are, would, however, demand a previous knowledge of the subject, sufficient to place the possessor out of the reach of improvement from any information conveyed in the work; and we are bound to say on the other hand, that the young veterinarian would run a great risque of being misled by the errors which exist in it.

*Metronariston: or a new Pleasure recommended, in a Dissertation upon a Part of Greek and Latin Prosody.* 8vo. 3s. sewed. Johnson. 1797.

**A** New pleasure recommended! This sounds well: and is a pleasure it must be to every man of taste to read the verses of the most admired poets according to the laws by which these verses were formed. But what will become of our great schools, should the boys unluckily get this book into their hands? What will be the fate of the poor lad who should take delight in reading a Sapphic ode according to the principles laid down in the work before us? He might feel a pleasure, like that of our author, in reading the verses: but his posteriors would suffer most undoubtedly both at Eton and Westminster. 'It may be so,' the author will perhaps say: 'yet the master ought to be flogged, and not the boy.' In this we agree entirely with him; but in the mean time we see no possible mode of forming the taste of a young man at these great schools; he must go through the regular discipline of flogging into a most barbarous pronunciation; his ears will at last become accustomed to the vile jargon; he will laugh at an unfortunate false quantity made against the rules of his school; and in the next breath spout out a line of Homer or Horace with a third at least of the syllables pronounced wrong.

The slightest attention would convince us of the last assertion, if our ears had not been accustomed to the present mode of reading in the learned languages. In a verse regulated by a certain number of long and short syllables following each other after a certain order, if we vary the pronouncing of the syllables in each verse according to our caprice, the metre is spoiled; and the same bad effect ought to be produced, as would be in English verse by a false pronunciation. But we talk only of quantity and metre in the learned languages: we say, that such a verse requires dactyls and spondees—another a trochee, a spondee, a dactyl, two trochees,—a third a molossus, an anapaest, and two dactyls, and so on; yet having laid down the rules, we think no more of our quantities: our spondees are converted into trochees, our dactyls into tribrachys.

Of this we have a number of excellent instances brought forward in the work before us; which, if the schoolmasters will not read with attention, we recommend to every man out of the trammels of school discipline. The circumstance which gave rise to our author's thoughts on this subject, similar to what has occurred to ourselves upon the continent, is told in a pleasant manner, and will amuse our readers. He

was walking with a learned ecclesiastic at Rome, in the Campo Vaccino, when (says he)—

This spot put us naturally in mind of, among other things, Horace's being accustomed to make it one of his walks, and of the troublesome fellow, whom he so divertingly describes to have fastened on him there. My companion began repeating—*Ibam forte via sacra, sicut meus est mos*—in quantity too new and pleasing to my ear to be passed unnoticed. He smiled; and said, as nearly as I can recollect, to the following effect:

"I have pronounced all the words, I believe, in their proper quantity; but I suppose, that you, like those of your countrymen, whom I have had the pleasure to know here, have, to your loss, a way of reading, by which a great deal of the beauty of ancient poetry, I mean its harmony—a principal constituent of all poetry—is destroyed; merely from the want of that attention to quantity, which you doubtless bestow in reading the verses of your own poets. And in this unreasonable practice you are more or less countenanced by the generality of my own countrymen; by all, I believe, who have not listened to the doctrine of Mekerchus—the great ambassador of a little state. Such pieces, indeed, as that to which we were alluding, though they are not written in poetical language—and are therefore, by their author, called *sermoni propiora*—are yet written in hexameter; and might, with proper attention to quantity, be read, every line of them, as passable verses of that measure. But, according to your way of reading, you seem not to allow that there is any word in the Greek or Latin languages, which constitutes a spondee, anapest, or iambus; or, in short, any foot ending in a long syllable: for, as far as I can observe, you have a rage for trocheeizing and dactylizing every thing; that is, you trocheeize every disyllable without exception; and dactylize every trisyllable, whose penultimate is short; whether anapest, tribrachys, or amphimacer; carrying the same inclination to the polysyllables; never pronouncing two long syllables together; and ending every word invariably short. Thus, in the line I repeated, there are no less than six disyllables; of which but one, unfortunately, is a trochee; and, consequently, that is the only one you pronounce properly, making trochees of all the rest: though three of them, *ibam, sacra, sicut*, are spondees; one, *via*, an iambus; and one a pyrrhic, *meus*; and I did no more nor less than pronounce them so. Of the last, indeed, the pyrrhic, *meus*, ending, as it does, short, I allow that you might make a tolerable hand; if it had had the good fortune to be preceded by *ut* as a monosyllable; and might twang off the dactyle and spondee at the end, *ut meus est mos*, currently enough, like *Di quoque sylvas*; but, the *ut* being unluckily stuck to *sic*, a spondee is formed; and whenever a pyrrhic is preceded by a spondee, or an anapest, or any other word ending



(as it must in hexameter) with a long syllable, it is impossible for you, until you get rid of a bad habit, to pronounce it rightly. For do you not make the same cacophony with *pede* in this verse—

\* Absentis ranæ pullis vituli pede pressis ?

though not deficient in melody, when properly pronounced : the termination with a pyrrhic before a spondee being to be found in the most polished poems ; as in the Georgics, where we find—

\* Victor equus, fontesque avertitur et *pede* terram  
Crebra ferit ;—

the latter part of which verse too, a monosyllable preceding a pyrrhic, you would read well. And indeed so you ought ; as some amends for the strange misconception, which, according to your custom, you must give in the beginning, to a hearer unacquainted with the verse ; who would suppose you to be speaking—instead of a victorious horse—of some mild and just conquering hero ; for you would pronounce it—*Victor equus*—two trochees. The latter part, I say, you would read well, because the pyrrhic is preceded by a monosyllable. But, had the verse ended—as it might harmoniously have done—thus, *crebra ferit pede terram*, I have a most violent suspicion that you would be quite thrown out. Little, however, I must confess, is lost by such errors in reading the *sermoni propiora*, where no great harmony is aimed at by the poet. But the case is very different in reading Homer and Virgil ; and, particularly, the very beautiful odes of our author ; every measure of which is, I apprehend, more or less lamed by you ; the sapphic, perhaps the least, because it ends with, what are your favourite feet, a dactyle and two trochees : and though it begins with a trochee too, yet that trochee must be followed by an ugly spondee, in which of course you must be wrong. Nay, this beginning trochee must present itself handsomely, without a monosyllable for its first member, or you will not admit it. How do you begin the second ode ? Do you not say—*Jam satis* ? Now if *Jam satis* be right in the first line, the two following should begin with *Grandinis* and *Dextera* : but I know that in these words you shorten the second syllable, and, to the death of all harmony—by your beloved dactylization—the third also ! In the asclepiad measure—*Mæcenas atavis edite regibus*—you seem to halve the matter : spoiling only the molossus and anapest at the beginning, because they terminate with long syllables ; and pronouncing rightly the two dactyles with which it concludes—unless indeed they be split into three such words as *dulce decus meum* : when, instead of two dactyles, you read them—though the first alone is so—as three trochees. From the same affection to trochees, you make cruel work with the poet's own favourite measure, called, after him, Horatian, as well as Alcaic ; where the spondee (or iambus) and the bacchius are sure—because they are feet

feet ending long—to be twisted by you to dislocation; for, instead of saying, as you should, *Vidēs ut altā*, you say, *Vidēs ut altū*; thereby confounding the sense too, as there is no substantive with which *altā* can agree. Cicero, in his Orator, says—concerning some customary contractions in the language in which he wrote—‘*Impetratum est a consuetudine ut peccare, suavitatis causa, liceret.*’ Now, if a similar plea could be admitted in favour of your custom of reading; if any suavity of sound, any succour to the sense were gained, you might adhere to it, and continue thus sinning, against prosody at least, not only with some excuse, but even with some show, or some pretence, of grace. Unhappily, neither to one or the other has it the shadow of a title. For when, by this most abominably-absurd custom, you destroy at once both the sound and sense, you seem to sin merely from a love of the very ugliness of sinning; as the same authour says, in his Offices, was Cæsar’s custom, in regard to the payment of debts—‘*Tanta in eo peccandi libido fuit, ut hoc ipsum eum delectârat, peccare, etiam si causa non esset.*’ P. 11.

From this conversation our author was led to examine the propriety of the English mode of reading Latin and Greek; and he adopted the rigid plan of quantity in preference to any other. The effect of this plan will be easily seen by any one who reads a few lines in Homer, Virgil, and Horace, by this strict rule: or by an instance in this book, we may judge in some degree of the new mode recommended—

‘Ades, Pater Supreme,  
Thy head with glory beamy!  
With glitter and with names what fufs!  
*Fortuna non mutat genus.*  
Lenesque sub noctem susurri,  
When lads to meet their lasses hurry,  
Musæ, sorores Palladis, lugent,  
And, “Murder’d Metre!” swells their loud lament.  
*Φρονυν μεν οι ταχεις, ηκ ασφαλεις—*  
They tread, for firm ground, on the slippery ice.  
• ‘Ουτος κρατιστος εστ’ ανηρ,  
He whom the world should most revere,  
‘Οστις αδικισθαι πλειστ’ επισταται βροτων,  
Nor is to wrath entic’d, or quits his godlike tone,  
*Ευν τω δικαιω γαρ, μεγ’ εξεστι φρονειν,*  
And force united dare, tho’ earth and hell combine!  
To jog thro’ life with glee, this maxim fix upon—  
*Ει μη κρεα παρη, τω ταρικω στερντετορ.*

Ἰσὺν ἔχοντες μοῖραν ἢ γινώσκουμεν,

Or as a pimple slight what is in truth a wen.

Ἀλλ' ἐστ' ἀληθὴς ἡ βροτῶν παροιμία—

Wife is indeed the child that knows its own papp.

Ἐἰ μοι γένοιτο παρθένος, καλὴ τε καὶ τερεῖνα,

I'd envy not or Persia's king, or emperor of China.

Ἄνδρες φίλοι, καὶ διμύεται, εἰραστὰι τε ποιεῖν τε,

O rouse! and rid yourselves of faults, that do so closely twine t'ye!

Impune quidvis facere, munus regium—

So Memmius cry'd of old, but wiser times may come,

Heroes! before this truth, how faints your faded ray—

Nisi utilis est quod facimus, stulta est Gloria! r. 39.

That this plan may be pursued in England, is proved by experience. For—

'I have seen' (says the author) 'a boy under twelve years of age, who had been taught at home to read his Homer and Virgil in this manner: and in each of them he could get a very good lesson without ever making a single error in regard to quantity. This led him to the same attention to every one of the Horatian measures; in which, as it was very easy for any boy to be, he was equally perfect. He had been acquainted indeed at the same time, lest he should be punished afterwards for doing right, with our usual manner of reading; which, from the great pleasure and the beauty that he found in the contrary practice, he held in high derision. Yet upon being sometimes bid to read so, that by proving the bad he might hold fast to the good; and being reminded that these new-fangled notions, as they may be called, though they are really old ones, would not be tolerated in our public schools, he could read as badly, when he chose it, as the first master of the first school in Great Britain; or, at least, as badly as the master reads to his boys, or lets them read to him, whatever he may be pleased to do in private. Our younger could even bring himself to say—though he could not help laughing—

“νεφέλη γέρετ' ἅ Zeus.” r. 37.

To give rules for quantity, is the intention of our prosodies. These rules should be observed in practice. For the doubtful quantities, we must study verse; but if we read these verses without regarding quantity strictly, the true quantity will not be learned; and in prose, we shall offend like the masters of the great schools. But to keep boys to this true quantity, is an arduous task; and a slip would be easily noticed by a boy. Hence we believe the masters rather rejoice at the present mode, which is a cover to their indolence. In prose, *cāno* and *cāno* are pronounced alike, as are also *mālo* and *mālo*; and

the same happens to the nominative and ablative singular of the first declension; but if our author's mode were adopted, these differences must be noted in reading: and to offend against them, would be a greater fault than an occasional slip in the pronouncing of a proper name.

To make this mode easy in heroic verse, it is recommended to consider it as composed of anapaests, and not dactyls; by which means we should certainly get rid of many faults, into which we fall from our dactylising mode of speaking in the vernacular tongue. This consideration too will lead us to the propriety of examining, with greater accuracy, the true reading of lyric poetry, in which we do not every where agree with our author; but, notwithstanding at times the quaintness of his style, the pleasure which we have received, and the many ingenious hints scattered through the whole book, encourage us to recommend it to all our readers of taste in classical literature.

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*A Treatise upon the Law of Usury and Annuities by Francis Plowden, of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Butterworth. 1797.*

THE subject-matter of this treatise is importantly connected with the present state of society, and has attracted the laudable solicitude of the legal and equitable departments of British jurisprudence.

In times when the advantages of extensive commerce have been little understood, and when men of philosophical or religious abstraction pronounced, with oracular confidence, maxims to govern the busy intercourse of life, it was not surprising that any profit sought to be acquired by pecuniary loans, should have been regarded as preposterous, or branded with the most dishonourable appellations; hence the quibbling sophistry with which this subject is discussed, even by the sagacious Aristotle; and hence the fierce declamatory invectives against usury, which abound in the writings of the fathers in the early christian church. The different habits and commercial pursuits of the modern world have rendered it necessary to discard the reveries of the philosophers and schoolmen, who have argued and fulminated against the practice of lending money for gain; and, indeed, some speculators have plausibly maintained the absurdity and impolicy of any legal interference with respect to the terms of pecuniary negotiations.

Between the two extreme opinions, our legislature has adopted a cautious medium:—in regulating the rate of interest, it has endeavoured at once to check the encroachments of avarice, and to favour the convenience and the enterprise of trade.

By the annuity act, it has to a certain degree protected the distressed and the inexperienced borrower from the harpy fangs of the nefarious money-jobber. An acquaintance with the leading cases which have been judicially decided under these statutes, and the principles by which the determinations of those cases have been avowedly regulated, is therefore highly important to the community.

As an author, Mr. Plowden has, on several occasions, been respectably distinguished; and we do not think his reputation will be lessened by the present treatise. Mr. Plowden traces the history of usury from its earliest period, and discovers much learning, and industry of research into the various opinions which have been held by different writers on the moral part of the subject. The rest of the work is more usefully occupied by a correct and well arranged statement of the principal decisions of our courts in questions of usury and annuities, with suitable comments.

*The Sea-sick Minstrel; or, Maritime Sorrows. A Poem, in Six Cantos. 4to. 5s. Boards. R. White. 1796.*

*Si vis me flere*, says Horace,—if you will make your readers weep,—you must weep first yourself. By a parity of reasoning, this author seems to have concluded that if you want to make your readers sick, you must be sick yourself first; and having experienced the qualms and queasiness of sea-sickness, he very generously does his best to communicate the same agreeable sensations to his readers. There is novelty at least in the design: and for the goodness of the execution we ourselves can answer, *probatum est*. The colouring is so vivid, and the images so apposite to the occasion, that those who have any bowels, cannot but find then moved—

‘O hand a vase—alas, alas, too late,

————— a sluice prevails,

The world is delug’d, sponges, mops, and pails.’

Such are our author’s elegant exclamations; for we entreat the reader to be assured that there is no fine-drawn allegory or ingenious turn in the title; real vulgar sea-sickness is the subject of this poem.

Along with this whimsical mock-heroic, is introduced, for we cannot say connected, a great deal of extraneous matter, chiefly relative to subjects of taste and the fine arts. Our chief painters are briefly characterised. Mr. Knight, the author of the Landscape, is attacked in some of his positions; but

but the minstrel's most formidable strictures, are bestowed on Mr. Bromley, author of a history of the fine arts, whose resentment expressed against the royal academicians, is declared to be the occasion of this indignant satire.

Of the writer's criticism we shall give a small specimen. We cannot say much in favour of the general merit of the poem. It is without plan, obscure, and careless, to a degree of slovenliness; and we do not mean it as an excuse, when we say, the author probably could write better if he would take more pains—

' A Cosway's fervour, chain'd to fashion's size,  
Spurns at restraint, and with the boldest vies.  
The groups of Rigaud nervously combin'd,  
Display extensive discipline of mind.  
See Wheatley form'd by polish of the town,  
Make rural scenes, the golden age, his own :  
And Westall, playful in Idalian groves,  
Disport with Venus, nestle with her doves ;  
Then borne exulting on a steed of fire,  
To greater deeds—Miltonic flights, aspire.

Yet Bromley hors'd upon a broom essays,  
With wizard wit to worry plum'd R. A's.  
Thy colours, Zoffanij ! propitious save,  
The actor's fleeting graces from the grave.  
Intrepid Northcote, with aspiring soul,  
Pants for expression, and attains the goal.  
Observing Smirke, replete with comic wiles,  
With softness irritates, with truth beguiles.  
A rugged Barry, by ambition stung,  
The wary Greek's reluctant bow had strung :  
While modest Stothard's temper'd sweetness charms,  
Winds round the heart, and without effort warms.

Yet baleful Bromley, like a moon-calf scowls,  
And inward burns to drug their birth-day bowls.' p. 36.

*Project for a perpetual Peace. A Philosophical Essay. By Emanuel Kant, Professor of Philosophy at Konigsberg. Translated from the German, 8vo. 1s. 6d. Vernor and Hood. 1796.*

**T**HIS work, so much celebrated on the continent, at last makes its appearance in an English dress: and though the temper of our country is not very favourable to political discussions, we are persuaded that there are still left among us men of candour and enlarged minds, who can read, without flying into a passion, the theory of a philosopher enjoying the patronage of one of the most despotical courts in Europe. To such men we recommend the work before us, not only because

because the subject is highly worthy of their attention, but because they may hence form some judgment of a man whose writings make an æra in the philosophy of Germany. To the Recivites, the Painites, in short to all men who have formed themselves into clubs in this kingdom for the persecution of political opinions, by law, by clamour, by fashion, or by any other mode whatsoever, this book can offer no attraction; he who wishes to read it with profit, must come to it with an impartial mind,—he must come to it with a portion of the same spirit with which it was dictated.

Many have been the projects for perpetual peace. So much the better for human nature. They prove that the glory acquired by war is factitious; and, by the continuation of these efforts, we may reasonably presume that mankind will in time be wise enough to see that war is folly. Every religious man knows that it is founded upon wickedness: and a greater object of commiseration cannot present itself, than the sight of two christian nations thronging to their places of worship on a fast day: when in the act of deploring their sins, one of them certainly, perhaps both, are guilty of duplicity in the sight of God. For the sin of continuing in an unjust war is greater than all their other faults; and there could not be a war without an aggressor. At the same time we do not think that the first attack of one nation is a sufficient excuse for the other, which without mercy retaliates; *retaliation* is a word not to be used by a christian king, or people; and it ought to be impressed on christian cabinets, that every life lost beyond absolute necessity, is murder, not in the poor soldier who committed it, but in the wretch who in cool blood advised his sovereign, or the people, to such an act of wickedness or barbarity.

The preliminary articles laid down by Kant for a perpetual peace, are as follows—

‘ No treaty of peace shall be esteemed valid, on which is tacitly reserved matter for future war.

‘ Any state, of whatever extent, shall never pass under the dominion of another state, whether by inheritance, exchange, purchase, or donation.

‘ Standing armies (*miles perpetuus*) shall in time be totally abolished.

‘ National debts shall not be contracted with a view of maintaining the interests of the state abroad.

‘ No state shall by force interfere with either the constitution or government of another state.

‘ A state shall not, during war, admit of hostilities of a nature that would render reciprocal confidence in a succeeding peace impossible: such as employing assassins (*percussores*), poisoners (*venefici*),

*refici*), violation of capitulations, secret instigation to rebellion (*perduellio*), &c.' p. 2.

Under each of these heads are very good remarks: but many of our readers will be startled with our author's first requisite for the government of states. Nay, if the author were an Englishman, we do not know whether he would be safe from the wisdom or the folly of some of our attorney-generals. We, who think that the dictum of an attorney general, that there has been a constitution in England ever since the time of Julius Cæsar, and the dictum of Thomas Paine that we have no constitution at all, are equally libels against common sense, see nothing in the following paragraph which is inconsistent with the spirit of our constitution. At the same time we must warn our readers that the word '*republican*' does not in Germany convey the precise idea which it does in England: for to a German all Englishmen are republicans, and a limited kingly power is not inconsistent with the theory of a republican government.

'The civil constitution of every state ought to be republican.'

'The only constitution resulting from the idea of the social compact, upon which every good legislation of a nation ought to be founded, is a republican constitution. It is the only one established upon principles compatible with, first, the liberty of all the members of a society in the quality of men; second, with the submission of all to a common legislation, as subjects; and third, with the right of equality, which all share as members of a state. This then is the only constitution, which in respect of right serves for a primitive basis to all civil constitutions; it remains now to be shewn, whether it also is the only one that can lead to a perpetual peace.'

p. 13.

Some other definitive articles are laid down, and a federation of states is proposed. In the discussion of this question all the solemn trifling of Grotius, Puffendorff, and Vattel, is treated with deserved contempt, as founded upon the folly of diplomatical pretensions. From the requisites laid down, it is evident that this perpetual peace is not likely to take place in our days: yet if the christian religion did not teach us that it will happen in a future generation, the history of mankind gives us some grounds for believing that there is a tendency to this desirable event.

Some admirable observations are made on the folly of separating politics from morality: and the intriguing politician, under which class we fear are ranged most of the statesmen of modern times, will see with pain that philosophy is sapping the foundation of his detestable art. The lawyers who read  
this



this work, should, if they feel any indignation against the writer, recollect that the lawyers on the continent are evidently meant in the following description; for, abroad, law is a perplexed, intricate science, dealing in hard names, chiefly Latin. The pleadings are not intelligible, except to men of the craft: a plain thought, which might be expressed in five words, is extended through half a dozen sheets of paper: sense is out of the question, every thing is determined by precedents: a cause may be so perplexed that it shall take up years before it comes to a decision; and a poor man cannot venture upon a process. With this remark in view, all who are acquainted with the continent will see with what propriety its lawyers are reprobated.

‘ So far from possessing this practical science which they boast of, these expert politicians have only the cunning of business; solely occupied in flattering the ruling power, because their personal interest is benefited by it; they sacrifice the nation, and would (if they were able) subvert the whole world. This is what happens to all lawyers by profession, who are not occupied in legislation. Without reasoning upon the laws, they are obliged to execute them; the last which appear then are always the best to them, and nothing can induce them to deviate from the mechanical order to which they are accustomed. Nevertheless, the facility which they have acquired of adapting themselves to all circumstances, inspires them with the vanity of believing that they can likewise judge of the universal principles of right and of government.

‘ The multiplicity of their connections causes them to acquire the knowledge of a great number of men, and they take this knowledge for that of man, though it is very different, and though, to obtain the latter, it is necessary to contemplate man and his faculties in a more elevated point of view. Proud of their spirit of observation, do they aspire to civil and public right? They will be able to carry thither only the spirit of chicane; they will apply their mechanical mode of proceeding even there, where despotic laws have no existence, and where reason tolerates no other constraint than that of a legal liberty, the sole and only foundation of a constitution which can guarantee right. Upon this the practitioner in the law reflects very little; he fancies himself able to fetch his notions from experience; and, without having need of principles of reason, he applies to the constitutions which have hitherto passed for the best, though they are almost all contrary to right, to obtain the idea of the best possible constitution.’ p. 52.

# MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

## POLITICAL.

*A Narrative of the Sufferings of T. F. Palmer, and W. Skirving, during a Voyage to New South Wales, 1794, on board the Surprise Transport. By the Rev. Thomas Fyfe Palmer, late of Queen's College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1797.*

THE reports which had been circulated injurious to the character of Mr. Palmer, rendered this justification necessary. If the narrative be true (and we have yet met with no contradiction of it), it exhibits instances of brutality on the part of the captain of the vessel, which fill the mind with an indignation beyond the power of expression. It rests with him to explain whether he acted thus of himself, and therefore may plead the impulse of his own disposition; or, whether he was set on by others to embitter the sufferings of his passengers in this uncommon degree, by the temptation of a reward which he had not the virtue to reject.

*Thoughts on a sure Method of annually reducing the National Debt of Great-Britain, without imposing additional Burdens upon the People; and which at the same Time will tend to diminish the Number of Poor Persons, and gradually annihilate the Poor-Rates. By Matthias Koops, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Symonds. 1796.*

Like most other thoughts on the same subject, not worth a farthing; though by the author's plan of universal tontine, and general annuity, government is, at the end of fifty-one years, to gain the net sum of 455,769,311. 4s.

*Dissertatio de Rebus-geſtis et Eloquentiâ Gulielmi Pitt, et de Republicâ ab eo tum Pace tum Bello adminiſtratâ.*

*A Dissertation on the Services and the Eloquence of William Pitt, and on the Acts of his Administration both in War and Peace. 4to. 2s. Cadell and Davies. 1797.*

This Latin effusion seems to be the work of some young collegian, who blindly admires the supposed ability of which he is an incompetent judge. He declares himself to be wholly uninfluenced by the spirit of party; while every page of the pamphlet tends to the establishment of a contrary supposition.

When the minister was placed at the head of the state, he found it (says this declaimer) bleeding with the wounds inflicted by the American war; a war which had reduced the British commerce to the verge of ruin, and, among other misfortunes, had nearly overwhelmed public credit. He directed his sagacity and wisdom to the arduous task of remedying these evils; and success attended his efforts. The success, however, of which this writer speaks, resulted from a series of peace; and was so far from being promoted by the object of his false panegyric, that it was obstructed and retarded by

the schemes of the premier, by his useless armaments, and extravagance of expenditure.

The conduct of Mr. Pitt in the present war (equally unjustifiable with the American war, and much more pernicious) is pompously blazoned, but without regard to truth of colouring; and the delay of peace is attributed to the severity of fate, not to the real and immediate cause.

The Latinity of this pamphlet is not despicable; but it is not recommended by force or elegance.

*Publicola. A Sketch of the Times and prevailing Opinions, from the Revolution in 1800, to the present Year 1810. Addressed to the People of England, and now first translated from the Russian Copy. 8vo. 3s. Wright.*

This manner of writing history (if it may be so called) has some advantages to the writer. He may range at pleasure through the regions of fiction; and he may give a plausibility to his insinuations, which it will not be easy seriously to refute. But unless he brings as much wit as wisdom into the composition, it will in general exhaust the patience of the reader before he has come to the conclusion, and found out the drift of the whole. Various methods have been lately adopted to represent reformation of every kind as connected with danger. The present effort is one of them. We are led through reforms to a revolution, resembling that of France, with all its consequences: and an opportunity is taken to exhibit some of the leading characters of the present day, who are enemies to war and corruption, as *therefore* friends to the French and to a revolution. Whether all this be fair, is a question the author has not asked, and which he may think it rude if we were to answer. It is, however, more strictly within the limits of our province to say that he evinces considerable talents; and if we are not charmed with his principles, we have derived some amusement from his detail of the progress of a revolution, though too absurd in its kind to deform the annals of a nation of rational creatures.

*Three Letters addressed to the People of Great Britain on the Failure of the late Negotiation. Including a few Hints on the Conduct proper to be adopted in the present Situation of Affairs. 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1797.*

After a review of the late negotiation for peace, drawn up with a considerable portion of candour, the writer of these letters urges the people to insist on an immediate peace, as the only remedy for the many political evils we labour under. He questions the sincerity and patriotism of the ministry, and, without entering into the causes of the war, contends that a *necessary* war ought to end, when the necessity which gave it birth, ceases. These topics are enforced by the usual arguments; and much novelty is not to be expected in a track so beaten.

*A Narrative of the Revolt and Insurrection of the French Inhabitants in the Island of Grenada. By an Eye-Witness. 8vo. Vernor and Hood. 1795.*

In a former number we noticed a publication on the same subject by a Grenada planter \*.—This pamphlet is on the opposite side of the question, and seems to be intended as a defence of the governor and president. It however throws no new light on the facts; and the conclusion to be deduced from both pamphlets is, that our own valuable West India possessions, and the property of the planters have been shamefully sacrificed to the visionary project of conquering St Domingo.

*A Letter to the Right. Hon. William Curtis, Lord Mayor of the City of London, on the National Debt and Resources of Great Britain; interspersed with Observations Financial, Commercial, and Political: and in Reply to Paine's "Decline and Fall of the English System of Finance." By Simeon Pope, of the Stock Exchange, Gent. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale. 1796.*

Simeon Pope, Gentleman, of the Stock Exchange, is in a violent passion against citizen Thomas Paine: but in the midst of his passion he can hardly find words strong enough to panegyrisé the king and W. Curtis, once lord mayor of London. As few people out of the Stock Exchange are likely to ask for the work, we will give an extract or two, to show our author's style and manner of reasoning—

'As it will appear, I flatter myself, from the foregoing authentic statements, that the strength, opulence and commerce of the country are nearly doubled since the accession of his present majesty to the throne, that his reign properly considered and compared, may be justly pronounced the most prosperous of any in the British annals.' P. 33.

Every thing flourishes at present in England, according to our gentleman's account of it: and it is unlucky for him that a *faux pas* lately in the bank should have overthrown one of his most solid arguments—

'I have before mentioned that circulating specie instead of being contracted, has been more than adequate for general uses. It may be asked, where rests the superflux? I answer at the Bank of England.' P. 49.

• After many other encomiums on the bank, we meet with the following assertion—

'That the bank never exceeds the bounds of prudence in its

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XIX. p. 215.

transactions, may, to a moral certainty be concluded, from the consideration, that its direction is composed of 24 men, eminently distinguished for wealth and character.

‘Such men having most at stake from their immensity of commercial connection, must necessarily be supposed to view with an inquisitive eye, and to weigh with the most scrupulous judgment, every matter that can possibly affect the interest of the bank.—From a principle of self-preservation, therefore, as well as of public integrity, the directors would indisputably be the first to give the alarm, were they to discover the most distant symptoms of a decline in the national firm. Hence an actual insolvency, or even an approach towards it, is not to be conceived, consistent with any known principle of reason, prudence, or common sense, by which a most opulent body of individuals can be actuated.—To imagine, in short, that such men will either open a door to their own ruin, or suffer the public interest, as well as their own safety, to be undermined by a concealment of circumstances, is the grossest absurdity imaginable.’ p. 53.

Of the two publications from citizen Paine and gentleman Pope, circumstances are certainly in favour of the former: and though we give the gentleman the superiority over the citizen in most of his data, and think very unfavourably of the citizen’s reasoning, we must confess that in the latter point the citizen is superior to the gentleman.

*Thoughts on National Insanity.* 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1797.

National insanity, according to this author, is visible, when the majority of a nation discover a total ignorance of their own real advantage, — when they manifest an extreme incapacity of reasoning concerning it with any justness or accuracy, — when they plunge headlong into measures highly pernicious or destructive, — and when they listen to no rational remonstrances upon the subject. He brings various instances from the history of this country: and, according to his definition of national insanity, he might have brought the whole history of other countries. But this way of condemning nations in the lump, is somewhat unfair; and the present situation of this country is too serious for wit, even if the author possessed any.

*An Appeal to the Moral Feelings of Samuel Thornton, Rowland Burdon, Hawkins Brown, Esqrs. and to every Member of the House of Commons who conscientiously supports the present Administration. In a Letter to William Wilberforce, Esq.* 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1797.

An appeal to the moral feelings, to reason, humanity, and conscience, will not, we hope, be in vain. It is here made with decency, propriety, and eloquence. The topics insisted on are,

the general state of the country, and the support given by those whom the author terms the *conscientious* part of the house of commons, to the minister in the questions of parliamentary reform, and the justice and the expediency of the present war. We recommend this letter to those for whom it is intended; and, if they deserve the favourable character the author gives them, they will not read it with indifference.

*A Particular Account of the late Outrages at Lynn and Wisbeach, being a Postscript to the Appeal to Popular Opinion, against Kidnapping and Murder. By John Thelwall. 8vo. 6d. Jordan. 1796.*

The fresh attempts which have been made to disperse or maltreat Mr. Thelwall's audiences, in defiance of all principles of order in society, of all law, and we may surely add, of all sense, common or acquired, have occasioned this narrative as a postscript to the *Appeal*, &c. It will be read with the same interest, and excite the same emotions. For our account of the *Appeal*, (see Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XVIII. p. 453.) It appears that the stupidity of the country magistrates still impels them to be Mr. Thelwall's best friends, to give him celebrity, to excite curiosity among the people, and consequently to fill his lecture-rooms.

*Coup-D'Œil sur les Assignats, et sur l'Etat où la Convention actuelle laisse les Finances à ses Successeurs, le 6 Septembre, 1795. Tiré de ses Débats. Par M. D'Ivernois.*

*A View of the Assignats, and of the State in which the present Convention leaves the Finances to its Successors, Sept. 6, 1795. Taken from their Debates. By M. D'Ivernois. 8vo.*

This work consists of two chapters, the first of which was printed in M. D'Ivernois' answer to Madame de Stael's pamphlet on peace. The author's intention in both is to predict the downfall of the French finances; and he felicitates himself not a little upon his success in irritating some members of the convention, which he assumes as a proof that his calculations must be right, and his deductions infallible. Almost a year, however, has elapsed without the fulfilment of his prediction, which we cannot help thinking was rash, although the use he makes of the decrees and regulations adopted by the convention will no doubt gain many converts, who may think that his only error is in fixing the catastrophe at too near a period. It would afford but little entertainment to our readers to follow him in his various details; the finances of a nation involving a species of arithmetic, understood by very few, and capable of much disguise. He endeavours, however, to prove that the French have lost an annual income of three hundred and fifty-five millions, besides the ruin of their fisheries, and other branches of industrious employment. He proposes that all sales of national property, made during the existence of the convention, shall be declared null and

CRIT. REV. VOL. XX. May, 1797. H void,

void, and that they shall immediately restore the forfeited estates to the emigrants, retaining only what were formerly called *national domains*. Like all advisers on his side of the question, he insists on monarchy as being the cure of all their political evils; and concludes in these words.—‘I have asserted in the preceding chapter, that the invention of assignats gave birth to the war, and that their destruction will bring peace. I have also asserted that the republic will perish as the monarchy did, by the finances. I repeat these assertions with redoubled confidence, and I appeal to events. The picture which I have drawn is not a picture of the imagination; I have traced it with the pencil of history.’

*Lettre du Comte D'Antraigues a M. de L\*\* C\*\*\*\*, sur l'Etat de la France.* 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1796.

*Letter from the Count D'Antraigues to M. de L\*\* C\*\*\*\*, on the State of France.*

This is one of the most implacable enemies to the French revolution we have yet met with. Nothing will satisfy him short of the full re-establishment of the ancient *régime*, which he contends no man, or set of men, had a right to alter.

*Les Intérêts de l'Angleterre sur la Manière dont se terminera la Révolution de la France. Adressé au Parlement d'Angleterre.* 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

*The Interests of England, respecting the Mode in which the French Revolution will terminate. Addressed to the British Parliament.*

The production, probably, of an emigrant, who assures us that death and destruction must inevitably follow a peace made with republican France.

*Des Effets de la Violence et de la Modération dans les Affaires de France. A M. Malouët. Par M. de Montlosier, &c. &c.*

*Of the Effects of Violence and Moderation in the Affairs of France, &c. &c.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. De Boffe. 1796.

If we considered M. Montlosier as speaking the sentiments of his brethren in emigration, we should congratulate them on the abatement of their ancient prejudices, and their having adopted a greater degree of moderation towards the men who at present have the lead in France. M. Montlosier is certainly entitled to the character of *modéré*; he entertains just and proper sentiments of the nature and effects of violence and moderation; he states with fairness the effects they produced in the course of the revolution; and he is consistent in hoping that the moderate system will finally prevail, and the happiness and liberty of the French nation be established on the basis of humanity and equity. But, like all emigrants, he clings to the cause of monarchy, and can see nothing firm, permanent, and steady

ready in the French government, till that be established. This, merely as matter of speculation, is fair enough; he has the example of England before him, which returned to monarchy after a (kind of) republican interregnum of nearly twelve years. But he appears to precipitate a question which the French were probably never less disposed to discuss than at present, when they have forced almost every power, with which they have been at war, to acknowledge their republic, and accept terms of their dictation. When their minds are changed, they may probably adopt the *limited* monarchy here recommended, and which, indeed, had the French court been sincere, would have been long ago established. As a sequel of this pamphlet, the author has published—

*Vues Sommaires sur des Moyens de Paix pour la France, pour l'Europe, pour les Emigrés. Par M. de Montlosier, &c. &c.*

*Summary View of the Means of Peace for France, Europe, and the Emigrants, 8vo. 1s. 6d. De Boffe. 1796.*

In this pamphlet, however, we find the spirit of the emigrant returning in full force, and the author endeavouring to reconcile an acknowledgment of the impossibility of conquering France, with the necessity there exists to carry on the war, and not suffer that republic to exist. Thinking, as he does, that monarchy alone can establish the system of justice and humanity, his sentiments are not incongruous, but, like those in the former pamphlet, are premature and unseasonable; nor does he, in the whole of his production, afford a reasonable ground of hope, even if the coalition of European powers were to begin again, and retrace their whole progress, from the issuing the duke of Brunswick's proclamation, to the last event recorded in the gazette.

## P O E T I C A L.

*The Poet's Fate, a Poetical Dialogue. By George Dyer. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1797.*

Mr. Dyer, who has frequently made his appearance before the public in verse and prose with some success, affords us another opportunity of paying a compliment to his labours, in a poem containing vivacity and harmonious versification. We cannot say of Mr. Dyer, what Horace asserts of the Greeks, '*Graius dedit ore rotunda Musa loqui*;' nevertheless we find many passages to commend, and much superior to the general importations from Parnassus. The subject of the poem is the neglect of literary characters, whom Mr. Dyer thinks entitled to a more liberal patronage than hath fallen to their lot,—making good the remark of the poet—

'Ploravere suis non respondere favorem  
Speratum meritis.'

With Mr. Dyer, we confess the present not the golden age for authors:

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tlors: and it is with sorrow we are compelled to acknowledge another truth, that the remunerated few on record have owed their good fortune more to the cowardly fears of their patrons than to a respect for genius. A number of names are cited in this poem, to prove the inattention of the great to literary merit—Yet is the complaint far from novel; It has been the lamentation of past times, as well as the present, and will, we fear, continue in *secula seculorum*! Men born to titles and fortunes attend but little to the cultivation of the mind. Pleasure is the idol to which they sacrifice. Philosophy must ever yield to TRIFLE, which being more easily obtained, will consequently monopolise pursuit. PLEASURE is a LADY accessible on all occasions; PHILOSOPHY a COY DAME whose favours are to be gained only by labour and perseverance. The following specimen from the poem before us will impress the reader with no unfavourable opinion of our author's poetical execution.

' The tuneful Dryden, born in happier days,  
Earn'd but fair Ormond's smile, and Dorset's praise.  
Mark him, who fram'd his creed to suit the day,  
Nor suffer'd politics to cloud his way,  
Now vend distress'd his bare unpolish'd line,  
Now courtly bend at adulation's shrine;  
In ode, play, satire, try his varying skill,  
Still poor in purse, though rich in genius still:  
Now jeer'd by lords, now jostled from the pit,  
Prais'd, curs'd, and beaten for another's wit:  
While booby critics hoot him to the grave,  
As traitor, atheist, libertine, and knave.  
At length due honours grace the poet's dust!  
See Sheffield, noble Sheffield, raise a bust!  
And Johnson throw a glory round a name,  
Already shining in the rolls of fame!' P. 22.

*Prison Amusements, and other Trifles: principally written during Nine Months of Confinement in the Castle of York. By Paul Positive. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1797.*

From the author's assumed name (Paul Positive) and the motto he has adopted, it seems probable that he has been a patriot in confinement; but whatever may be the warmth of his patriotic zeal, there is not much fervour in his poetical effusions; they however discover neatness and sometimes elegance of composition, a merit not insignificant, considering the disagreeable circumstances under which they were produced. The verses 'On Moonlight,' and the 'Bramin,' are the best pieces in the volume; the following lines from the Bramin describe a curious but authenticated fact in natural history, namely, the fascination of birds by the eyes of the snake—

' The dazzling beams intoxicate their sight,  
They freeze with horror, quiver with delight;

From bough to bough the fluttering victims hop;  
 Then one by one, entranced and helpless, drop!  
 Linnets and finches perish in the soar,  
 With many a sweet inhabitant of air:  
 Why sleeps vindictive thunder in the skies  
 When poor, unfriended robin redbreast dies?  
 Thick as in autumn rain the weeping leaves,  
 The falling birds the monster's maw receives:  
 Till gorged with slaughter, satiated with prey,  
 Slowly he trails his bloated bulk away;  
 But faint with motion, and with food oppressed,  
 He stretches all his lazy length to rest.' p. 105.

*A Political Eclogue. Citizen H. T\*\*\*e, Citizen T\*\*rn\*y,  
 R. B. Esq. 4to: 1s. 6d. Fry. 1797.*

Waving the politics of the eclogue before us, we acknowledge that it possesses some humour, some poetry, and much *fire*. Had there been less of the *last* quality, we might have received more pleasure; as for its reviewers, we profess ourselves of no party,—*nullius in verba*,—we are confined to no set of opinions. Avaunt prejudices!—*amicus Plato, amicus Socrates, sed magis amica Veritas*. Whether a production issue from the brain of a whig or tory, an aristocrat or democrat, we shall with candour appreciate its value: forever yield our *plaudit* to virtue and merit, and withhold it from wickedness and imbecillity.

The personages who principally figure in this eclogue, we hope, do not rise to that exalted sphere of infamy in which the speeches they are here made to utter would seem to place them; let us allow for prejudice, and rather conclude the poet to be a member of the vanquished party, who invokes the Muse of gall by way of consolation for his disappointment.

In justice to our observations, we select a specimen of the performance.

Citizen T\*\*rn\*y, in answer to his republican friend citizen H. T\*\*\*e, thus delivereth himself—

'To thy superior genius, aw'd, I bend,  
 And quit for ever relative and friend.  
 Again my sky-blue Myrmidons arise,  
 In full review, before my ravish'd eyes—  
 On this lov'd theme enamour'd let me dwell,  
 Count all their labours, all their prowess tell,  
 And fondly to thy partial ear describe  
 The zeal and follies of the mongrel tribe.  
 I spoke, and phrenzy kindled at the sound,  
 And party's flaming spirit rag'd around;  
 That fell magician, whose tremendous power  
 Unchains the furies in their maddest hour;

H 3

Whole

Whose wand, like death, lays all distinctions low,  
 Unlocks the sources of domestic woe,  
 Inflames the fiends of anarchy and strife,  
 And stains with deepest shade the all of life.  
 D—ll—s, the intrepid D—ll—s, rav'd amain,  
 But still the doughty champion rav'd in vain.  
 My fans culottes around the huffings hung,  
 And drown'd his periods, ere they left his tongue;  
 Staunch to their friend, and by his cause inspir'd,  
 One soul inform'd them, and one demon fir'd.  
 C——e, of Borough jacobins the boast,  
 And giant A—c—k, in himself a host,  
 Stung by each hostile vote, with fury burn'd,  
 While the throng'd High-street sourer grows return'd.  
 Trade's fordid habits own'd the genial hour,  
 And alter'd Nature felt its magic power;  
 Sequester'd Parsimony learn'd to live,  
 And Pride to stoop, and Avarice to give;  
 S——y his triple-bolted chest explor'd,  
 And drew, without a sigh, its glittering hoard;  
 I grasp'd the gold, with self-applauding grins,  
 And bow'd obsequious to the lord of skins.  
 The starch dissenter left the unfinished prayer,  
 And rent with shouts prophane the groaning air;  
 In vain the solitary speaker growl'd,  
 Prim misses wept, and ancient maidens howl'd;  
 No crowds besieg'd the conventicle's door,  
 And all the pious mummary was o'er. P. 5.

Such is the address of citizen T\*\*rn\*y, to whom citizen H.  
 T\*\*\*e thus replyeth—

' Unwearied, resolute, with happiest art,  
 And skill consummate, thou hast play'd thy part;  
 Incessant toil'd the rabble to bewitch,  
 To inflame the needy, and to fleece the rich:  
 Shed round the poor fanatic's darkling way  
 One glimpse of reason, one enlivening ray;  
 Awhile suspended P——r's unmeaning rant,  
 M—n's pert sneer, and A——y's holy cant;  
 The trembling saint from H—ll's mad pulpit led,  
 And many a sinner sent, undamn'd, to bed.  
 But bid, to fools and hypocrites, adieu—  
 Far other prospects open to thy view;  
 Far other cares thy lab'ring mind await;  
 A plunder'd people, and a falling state.  
 From scepter'd tyranny what carnage springs,  
 What devastation from the pride of kings!

By England train'd, and ravenous for prey,  
 The Imperial eagle wings his deathful way;  
 From his dire beak affrighted regions [*legions?*] fly,  
 And trembling nations shrink beneath his eye;  
 Hungarian hell-hounds, from their desarts torn,  
 With savage howlings wake the startled morn;  
 Climb the steep mountain, burst the impervious wood,  
 And range with horrid joy through fields of blood;  
 Oe'r Europe rolling in his fiery car,  
 Aloft, the British Demon sounds to war;  
 From the four winds, from Hell's unfathom'd deep,  
 Collects the storm, and points it where to sweep.  
 O haste, my friend, and join the patriot band,  
 That toil to rescue an ungrateful land;  
 To pluck from dying Freedom's latent foes  
 The mask, and give the wearied world repose;  
 To wrest from Vanity its stars and strings;  
 And print on the dull sense of doting kings  
 Those awful lessons, to oppressors read,  
 When Charles expir'd, and wretched Louis bled.  
 Yet in thy path shall many a thorn be found,  
 And legal ruin still shall hover round;  
 Unjust impeachments, Newgate's living grave,  
 The Tower's black turrets frowning o'er the wave,  
 Those self-devoted democrats await,  
 Who, rous'd, and anxious for their country's fate,  
 Unite to dissipate the impending storm,  
 By French improvements, and by French reform.' P. 7.

After the above quotations, it is an easy matter to pronounce the author of this philippic to be one of the routed phalanx of general Thelluson, and who, finding himself unable to face the constitutional cannon of politics, retires to the desiles of Parnassus, and endeavours with poetical grape-shot to pepper the authors of his discomfiture; imitating poor Hudibras in the stocks, who—

'Cheared up himself with ends of verse,  
 And sayings of philosophers.'

*The Castle of Olmutz; a Poem, inscribed to La Fayette.* 4to.  
 2s. 6d. Kearsley. 1797.

Unfortunately for the numerous herd of writers of blank verse, they are blind to its difficulties. The trumpet of Milton is not to be sounded by a *little puffer*; yet almost every *tyro* in poetry wantonly catches it up at times, to prove the madness of the attempt, and expose the imbecillity of his powers; putting us in mind of the Irishman, who being asked if he could play on the violin, replied, 'He believed he could if he were to try.' We are led to these reflections,

tions by the poem before us, which, we are sorry, to say contains more tinsel than gold, more bombast than sublimity : which, though so essentially different in their natures, are often mistaken for each other :—*professus grandia, surgit.*

We think the author might have used a word of more dignity for the *exordium*, than the feeble expletive *And*.

‘ *And* is there aught in the concerns of men,  
That calls each glowing sympathy of soul,  
And warms it into action, as when virtue,  
Pure as the fount of light, bends her meek head  
Beneath oppression, yet in bending shews  
In its full force the dignity of man?’ p. 3.

This passage is ungrammatical, and redundant, with a confusion of imagery ; *warming a glowing sympathy, virtue bending her meek head*, and *showing in its force the dignity of man*, betrays such a total want of judgment as would disgrace a school-boy. We forbear further quotation from a performance that has nothing to plead in its favour, except a *seeming* sorrow for the sufferings of the unfortunate Fayette. Should the author of the *Castle of Olmutz* be of any profession, we would seriously advise him to make that *profession his wife*, and instantly divorce the *Muse*, who appears to be a very meretricious lady, and from whose embraces (if we may appeal to the present brat) nothing can be expected but folly and the rickets.

## RELIGIOUS.

*An Essay on the Philosophy of Christianity. Part the First. Containing Preliminary Disquisitions on Power, and Human Preference. By Caleb Pitt. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Gardiner. 1796.*

This writer means well. Whether he understands his own writings, or has expressed himself in a manner intelligible to his readers, we may in some degree be able to determine from the following passage—

‘ Power, is in its own nature an actual and positive being : and ontologically considered, is an affection of being, next in order of nature to extension and duration, it being essential to all actual being. We are incapable of forming a picturesque conception of power ; nor is it a transcript by reflection from our consciousness : but it is, like extension and duration, a simple object of thought, the thought of every one, which can only be singled out by its relations and accompanying objects.’ p. 2.

‘ The essentials to the existence of power evidently are ability, capacity related to that ability, and suitable circumstances to valuable operation.’ p. 25.

*Letters to William Paley, M. A. Archdeacon of Carlisle, on his Objections to a Reform in the Representation of the Commons, and on his Apology for the Influence of the Crown in Parliament; being strictures on the Essay upon the British Constitution introduced in his Principles of Moral and Political Philosophy; with an Appendix.* 8vo. 3s. sewed. Johnson. 1796.

These Letters are written in a very acute and manly manner, display a thorough knowledge of the subject, and effectually confute the doctrines they were written to expose.—Dr. Paley owes a reply to his own reputation, since affluence of circumstances affords him a conscience.

We forbear to make extracts from this publication, the whole being entitled to a serious perusal.

*Observations on the Principles of Christian Morality and the Apostolic Character: occasioned by Dr. Paley's View of the Evidences of Christianity.* By the Rev. Peter Roberts, A.M. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Owen. 1796.

It is, we believe, agreed on all hands, that Dr. Paley is a writer of great ability; and, though we can by no means ascribe equal commendation to his *Evidences of Christianity*, as to his *Horæ Paulinæ*, we yet think his *Evidences* merit considerable praise. In the same light they are viewed by Mr. Roberts himself, who, notwithstanding he bestows this general approbation, considers them as entitled but to *qualified* praise. Having plainly stated the grounds of his objections; it must be acknowledged that he sensibly supports them, though not with the precision we expected to have seen.

*Select Essays on Scriptural Subjects; viz. 1. An Inquiry into the Nature of our Lord's Prophetic Office. 2. On the Office of the Holy Spirit. 3. On the Nature and Design of the Gospel Ministry. 4. On Fasting. 5. Reflections on the Human Nature of Christ.* By N. Meredith. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Matthews. 1796.

These Essays are calculated for only one class of readers. The intention of the author to discriminate exactly between the offices of the three persons in the Godhead, was certainly laudable; and all must agree with him that the persons separating from the church of England, on a pretext of greater conformity to its articles, are highly culpable in neglecting to address their prayers to the Holy Ghost, and meditating on the appropriate marks of his character. It is the intention of one essay to rectify this error: but we cannot say that our author every where succeeds in his design, any more than in his reflections on the human nature of Christ. It is true that in one place he refutes himself from the suspicion of heresy.

‘ Thus it appears, from the sacred scriptures, that the same blessed person who was and is God over all; “by whom,” and “for whom,”

whom," are all things; for whose "pleasure they were created; and by whom they are held in existence; the adoration of angels! and the hope of men! was himself a man, and that in every stage and circumstance of his life, from helpless infancy to maturer age, he actually felt, and was affected, as any other man would have felt, had he been in the same circumstances, and as free from sin as Christ was.' p. 165.

Yet there is danger that in this essay the strong language held upon the humanity may impair the belief of the divinity of Christ, just as the attempt to rescue the character of the Holy Ghost from neglect, is not unattended by some encroachments on the spiritual nature of the two other persons in the Holy Trinity. The essay on fasting, though recommended by the author's practice, is not likely to gain any converts; but as the whole work 'has been for some years a source of the most delightful meditation to him,' and certainly manifests a good temper and disposition tinged with a spice of enthusiasm, we may congratulate him that he has been so long so innocently employed as to himself, if not profitably to others.

*A Vindication of the Divine Inspiration of the Holy Scriptures, and of the Doctrines contained in them: being an Answer to the two Parts of Mr. T. Paine's Age of Reason. By Thomas Scott, Chaplain to the Lock Hospital. 12mo. 1s. Jordan, 1796.*

Mr. Paine's arguments against the books of Moses are answered in a plain popular manner; and if the author had stopped there, he would have acted prudently; but he appears, in some instances, to plunge into the depths of mysticism. Thus the victories of Joshua are made to be typical of those obtained by Christ over the enemies of his people:—the historical books, notwithstanding the many difficulties allowed to be in them, are maintained to have been written under the superintending inspiration of the holy spirit:—the word *Satan* is said to be used in various places of the Old Testament: but in this the author takes an unfair advantage of his antagonist; *Satan* may be used in a thousand places in its proper sense of *adversary*. Our author still maintains that they were children slain by the two bears, according to the order of Eliphaz; we say, upon the authority of the text, that they were men in the vigour of life:—the evangelists are said to have written by the superintending inspiration of the holy spirit; yet on the genealogies we have these words; 'I suppose they copied such matter from the public records.'—We might adduce several other things, which weaken our author's mode of carrying on the controversy;—we might refer to his mode of treating the Trinity, which may excite doubts in the mind of the orthodox, must raise a prejudice against him in the minds of unbelievers, and was not at all necessary towards the maintaining of his argument;—

but

but we would rather refer to things with which we were more pleased. We were glad to see that he defended the history of Jonah; and we extract with pleasure the vindication of St. Paul, because we once knew a man of great acknowledged abilities and literature, led first into scepticism, according to his account, by the error into which he supposed that apostle had fallen. Our author's explanation is perfectly just, and deserves the attention of sceptics and infidels, if they can be induced to give up a jest for sound argument—

‘ Mr. P.'s opinion that the apostle's discourse, is ‘ doubtful jargon,—as destitute of meaning as the tolling of the bell at the funeral,’ will not be generally acceded to. He might have found out St. Paul's meaning, if he had honestly sought it with as much diligence, as he had used in burlesquing it. I am sure his language on this subject must appear jargon to every man of sober understanding: and therefore no answer can be required. He next retorts the apostle's words upon him, and repeatedly calls him a fool! The judge of the world must decide on which part the folly lies. But had Mr. P. duly considered the nature of death, which is not absolutely ceasing to exist; but ceasing to exist in the former manner: he would, as a naturalist, have seen, that except seeds die, they are not quickened. “ Unless they die, they abide alone,” as our Lord also says; who is thus involved with the apostle in our author's peremptory charge. The seed, before it grows, ceases as much to be a grain of corn, as a man at death ceases to be a living man; and is as absolutely irrecoverable to its former mode of existence by any human power: yet it springs up into a new life, incomprehensibly, by the power of God; as men will rise at the last day. So that the illustration is sufficiently just and clear: even though ingenuity can find out some shades of difference, with which men in general are wholly unacquainted.’ P. 102.

If the whole work had been written like the above, we must have given this answer the preference, in a popular sense, to most of those we have seen: but there are many inaccuracies which give too much advantage to the adversary. The conclusion we recommend to all parties engaged in this controversy—

‘ I would now observe in conclusion, that a serious mind is the grand requisite for obtaining satisfaction, in an enquiry of this nature. If the reader sincerely desires to be preserved from mistake, and directed into the way of truth: let him give the Bible itself an impartial and diligent investigation. Let him act according to the dictates of his conscience without reserve, while he waits for fuller information. Let him use his understanding, and not be determined by his passions and prejudices. Let him ask himself, whether he be as willing to be convinced the Bible is true, as the contrary? And if he be-conscious, that he is not, let him honestly enquire  
after



after the cause of this prejudice. For if pride or love of forbidden objects bias his mind, an impartial verdict cannot be expected. Let no man, who would know the will of God, pay the least regard to wit, ridicule, eloquent declamation, or virulent abuse: these please corrupt nature, but they always tend to obscure the truth, or confuse and mislead the mind. Finally, as the belief of a God is taken for granted by all parties; and as God must in all senses be the fountain of knowledge and wisdom; let every enquirer beg of him to strengthen and assist his judgment, to keep his mind unbiassed, to enable him to distinguish truth from error, and to guide him in the path of everlasting felicity.' P. 156.

*Universal Benevolence. A Sermon preached in the Parish Church of Castor in the County of Lincoln, on Wednesday, Dec. 28th, 1796, before a Friendly Society of Tradesmen and Artificers, and published at their Request. By the Rev. Samuel Turner, A. M. Chaplain to the Right Hon. the Earl of Scarborough, &c. 8vo. 6d. Scatcherd. 1797.*

Plain practical advice, suited to the capacity of the hearers, — a praise, at least, equal to that of its being an object of criticism.

*A Caution to Young Persons against Infidelity. A Sermon, preached in the Unitarian Chapel, in Essex-street, London; Sunday, April 3d, 1796. By John Disney, D.D. F. S. A. 8vo. 6d. Johnson. 1796.*

The worthy preacher of this discourse very properly calls upon young men to suspend their judgments before they join the standard of infidelity. The caution is a very good one, and in the present times not unseasonable; but we have too great a contempt for the insinuations of modern infidels, to think that they can have any effect on a mind well educated, or much on a young man tolerably instructed in his bible by his parents and teachers.

*Jacob in Tears. A Sermon, preached Feb. 19, 1786, on Occasion of the Death of Mr. Joseph Treacher, Feb. 7th preceding, in consequence of Wounds he had received from Russians, Jan. 7th preceding. By Charles Bulkley. 8vo. 6d. Johnson. 1795.*

In an Advertisement, we are told that this sermon is published at this distance of time from its being preached, on account of a connection it is found to have with the author's Notes on the Bible, now preparing for publication; but the nature of that connection it is impossible for us to discover. The discourse, by itself, is not discreditable to the piety and talents of the venerable author, whose former writings (*Economy of the Gospel, &c.*) have gained the approbation of the public.

*The Path of the Just like the shining Light : a Sermon occasioned by the Death of Henry Keene, Esq. who departed this Life Feb. 14, 1797, in the Seventy-first Year of his Age; preached at Maze-gond, Southwark, Feb. 26, 1797, by James Dore. 8vo. 1s. Gurney. 1797.*

This honourable tribute to the memory of a very useful member of society may have uses beyond that object. The author gives a very happy illustration of his text, and recommends the example of the just man with energy and ability.

*A Compendious Dictionary of the Holy Bible : containing a Biographical History of the Persons ; a Geographico-Historical Account of the Places ; a Literal, Critical, and Systematical Description of other Objects, whether Natural, Artificial, Civil, Religious, or Military ; and an Explication of the appellative Terms mentioned in the Writings of the Old and New Testaments, and the Apocrypha ; including the Significations of the Hebrew and other Words occurring therein. Likewise a brief View of the Figures and Metaphors of Holy Writ. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Button. 1796.*

A good work of this kind is a desideratum, and will probably long remain so. There is much of useful information in the compendium before us; but the editor splits on the fatal rock, the system of Calvinistic theology, to which he is most violently attached. If all the scholastic and metaphysical phrases, used from the time of St. Augustine to the present days, could be expunged, the work would admit of considerable improvement, by the insertion of much more useful and important matter.

*Remarks on a Publication, entitled, " A Serious Admonition to the Disciples of Thomas Paine, and all other Infidels." By Abraham Binns. 8vo. 1s. 1796.*

The *Serious Admonition*, to which this is an answer, and which is printed here, was a loose sheet, dispersed, probably, among the poor, as an antidote to Paine's *Age of Reason*. In it, the dying moments of Voltaire and Mr. Romaine are contrasted; and Voltaire is said to be the hero of T. Paine, and modern infidels. Mr. Binns objects to this mode of attacking deists, and is for meeting them by fair argument. His predilection for them, however, is more obvious than for the religion of the orthodox; and what he advances on the uses of prayer, will not, we apprehend, be approved, even by the more liberal divines. As to the *Serious Admonition*, it is, like all proclamations against Paine's works, an invitation to read them!

#### D R A M A T I C.

*Utrum Horum : a Comedy of Two Acts. As it is now acting, with great Applause, at the respective Theatres of London and Amsterdam. 8vo. 1s. Murray and Highley. 1797.*

A very dull and poor attempt at a politico-dramatic performance.

AGRI-

## AGRICULTURAL.

*First Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons, appointed to take into Consideration the Means of promoting the Cultivation and Improvement of the waste, unclosed, and unproductive Lands of the Kingdom. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1796.*

The main resolutions to which the inquiries of this committee have led, are the following—

‘ Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, that the cultivation and improvement of the waste lands and commons of the kingdom, is one of the most important objects to which the attention of parliament can possibly be directed. ’

‘ Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, that the granting of a bounty to encourage the cultivation of potatoes, in lands at present lying waste, uncultivated, or unproductive, would not only be the means of augmenting in a considerable degree that valuable article of food, but might also have the effect of promoting the improvement of extensive tracts of land at present of little value. ’

‘ Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, that the chairman do move the house for leave to bring in a bill, for facilitating the division and inclosure of waste lands and commons, by agreement among the parties interested therein, or a certain proportion thereof, and for removing certain legal disabilities that might otherwise stand in the way of such agreement.’ p. 5.

Subordinate to these, are others, which, with the rest of the Appendix, comprise a variety of interesting observations. Thus, in appendix A, pp. 8 and 9, to justify the opinion of an increased population, at least in regard to the metropolis, an account is inserted of the number of black or neat cattle and sheep annually brought for sale to Smithfield market, from 1732 to 1794, both years inclusive ; and it appears that,

The increased consumption, every ten years since 1732, is as follows :

	Cattle.	Sheep.
“ Consumption in 1794 - - -	109,064	717,990
Increase compared with the consumption in 1784 (10 years)	10,921	101,880
Do in 1774 (20 years) -	18,645	132,700
Do in 1764 (30 years) -	33,896	161,630
Do in 1754 (40 years) -	34,774	86,640
Do in 1744 (50 years) -	32,116	227,370
Do in 1732 (62 years) -	32,854	203,290

‘ Consequently the total increase, in 62 years, amounts to the enormous

enormous number of 32,854 head of cattle, and 203,290 sheep, for the metropolis alone.' P. 8.

Appendix B contains the president's address on the cultivation and improvement of waste lands in Great Britain, divided into six sections, of which the second presents (P. 17) the following general

*'View of the Extent of the Island of Great Britain, and the Proportion between the waste and unclosed, and the cultivated Part thereof.'*

A C R E S.			
	uncultivated.	Cultivated.	Total Extent.
England and Wales -	7,888,777	39,027,156	46,915,933
Scotland - - - -	14,218,224	12,151,471	26,369,695
	22,107,001	51,178,627	73,285,628
Uncultivated	- - -	22,107,001	
Total -	- - -	73,285,628	

Appendix C presents 'Extracts from the Reports, printed by the Board of Agriculture; pointing out the Advantages of a general Inclosing Bill.'

It is, nevertheless, obvious to remark, that, however plausible these golden speculations may appear, there are considerations, that, in framing such a bill, ought to be well weighed, before it be passed into law. The substitution, for instance, of land in lieu of tithes, is pregnant with mischiefs which it is by no means easy to calculate. But to this let the clergy look. Nor be the rights of the cottager forgotten.

*Account of the Experiments tried by the Board of Agriculture, in the Composition of various Sorts of Bread, Anno 1795. 4to. 11. Robinsons. 1795.*

The board of agriculture, on taking into consideration the great question of substitutes for wheat in the manufacture of bread, being desirous of making such experiments as the sudden exigency of the moment seemed to demand, procured all the sorts of grain commonly sold in London, and having ground them into meal, and baked them in various mixtures into bread, here present the public with the result, under the following heads—

#### \* RICE.

\* Of all the mixtures, none has made bread equally good with rice, not ground, but boiled quite soft, and then mixed with wheat flour. One-third rice, and two-thirds wheat, make good bread; but

but one-fourth rice, makes a bread superior to any that can be eaten, better even than all of wheat; and as the gain in baking, is more than of wheat alone, and rice to be had from the East Indies in any quantity, and might be imported here, it is said, so low as one penny three farthings, or at the utmost, two-pence per pound, it appears to be an object of very great importance, more especially, as there can be no doubt of the nutritive quality. Were it imported with the husk on, of which it might be divested here much cheaper than in America, the Carolina rice might be had, it is supposed, much lower than at present.

#### ‘ POTATOES.

‘ The experiments that have been made on this root, are numerous, and the result similar. It makes a pleasant, palatable bread, with wheat in the proportion of one-third, but one-fourth still lighter and better.

‘ Specimens of barley and potatoes, and also of oats and the same root, made into bread, have been sent to the board, which promise well. In some cases, the potatoe was not boiled, but merely grated down into a pulp, and mixed with wheaten flour, in which mode it made excellent bread. Potatoes seem to have an admirable effect, in making any species of bread naturally harsh or heavy, light and pleasant.

#### ‘ OATS.

‘ This grain is so well known in various parts of the kingdom, that the proper mode of using it, is perfectly well ascertained. It appears, from Dr. Pearson, of Birmingham’s experiments, (Appendix, No. II.) that it answers better, mixed with potatoes, than was commonly apprehended.

#### ‘ BARLEY.

‘ The board has had no barley bread before them, that does not feel heavier in the hand than wheaten; but this is no proof against its nutritive quality: mixed with wheat, half and half, or potatoes one-fourth and three-fourths barley, the bread is good. Its great plenty in the present year, renders it an object highly promising.

#### ‘ RYE.

‘ In several parts of the kingdom, a mixture of rye and wheat, is reckoned an excellent species of bread. In Nottinghamshire opulent farmers consume one-third wheat, one-third rye, and one-third barley; but their labourers do not relish it, and have lost their rye teeth, as they express it. As rye is well known to be a wholesome and nutritious grain, its consumption cannot be too strongly recommended.

‘ The following mode of making a new kind of household bread, on a long trial, has been found to answer extremely well. Supposing a bushel of rye to weigh 60lb. to that add one-fourth part,

part, or 15lb. of rice. This is all ground down together, and taking out the broad bran only, which seldom exceeds four and a half, or five pounds, for that quantity, it is thus prepared for household use. Fourteen pounds of this flour, when baked into bread, and well soaked in the oven, will produce twenty-two pounds weight of bread, which is a surplus of three pounds and a half in fourteen pounds, over and above what is usually produced in the common process of converting household wheat flour into bread. The astringent quality of the rice, thus mixed with rye, corrects the laxative quality of the latter, and makes it equally strong and nourishing with the same weight of common wheaten bread.

#### ‘ INDIAN CORN.

‘ The flour of Indian corn, by itself, makes a heavy bread, in all the specimens yet produced to the board. Anthony Songa, esq. the imperial consul, produced some wholly of this grain, which was sweet and palatable, but crumbling. He informed the board, that the right mode of manufacturing it is, to boil the flour to the consistency of paste, and then, when mixed with wheat flour, it makes excellent bread. The same idea had occurred to the board, and was found to answer. If used by itself, it is said to have at first a laxative effect; but that diminishes by use, and at any rate, can easily be corrected, by a mixture either of barley or rice.

#### ‘ BUCK-WHEAT:

‘ The following account of the mode of using this species of grain, in Brittany, was communicated to the board by an intelligent emigrant from that province.

‘ No more is sent to the mill, than what is wanted for a fortnight, or three weeks at farthest.

‘ The miller is careful only to grind, in the first instance, so as to separate the meal and the bran from the black, hard, and triangular husk, without totally grinding it down. For this purpose, the grain being first dried, if necessary, on a kiln, he places the stone in such a manner as only to press lightly. This first process being over, the miller proceeds the same as with any other grain.

‘ The mode of preparing the dough, is simple. The meal is steeped by slow degrees, and worked up for two or three hours, before it is made into cakes.

‘ Respecting the pap, they boil water in a vessel; this water is drawn off, boiling hot, into another vessel, where it is taken to steep the flour over the fire. The operation is done slowly, and the pap, brought to the consistence required, soon becomes sufficiently prepared; but before this is completed, a little salt is added.

‘ The process is the same, when, instead of salt and water, sugar and milk are preferred. The best pans or kettles, are iron ones, which metal is the best for the stoves in which the cakes are baked.

• As considerable quantities of buck-wheat might be procured, if necessary, from various quarters of the globe, as Russia, America, the Mediterranean, &c. it was thought proper to mention in this sketch, what has been found the most advantageous mode of consuming it, in a province where it is much used, and is justly accounted one of the most valuable of its productions.

#### • BEANS AND PEASE.

• The board have been informed, when these are used as bread; that in some places, the meal, or flour, is steeped in water, to take off the harsh flavour, and that afterwards, when mixed with wheat flour, the taste is hardly to be perceived. Specimens of very good bread, have been produced, mixed as follows: 1lb. bean flour, 1lb. potatoes, and 4lb. of flour.

• The flour, or meal, both of beans and pease, by being boiled previous to its being mixed with wheaten flour, incorporates more easily with that article, and probably is much wholesomer than otherwise it would be. P. 10.

The Appendix contains communications to the Board on substitutes for wheat, for which we must refer to the work itself, with the exception of a single extract—

• There is nothing that would tend more to promote the consumption of potatoes, than to have the proper mode of preparing them as food, generally known. In London, this is little attended to, whereas in Lancashire and Ireland, the boiling of potatoes is brought to very great perfection indeed. When prepared in the following manner, if the quality of the root is good, they may be eat as a bread, a practice not unusual in Ireland.

• The potatoes should be, as much as possible, of the same size, and the large and small ones boiled separately.

• They must be washed clean, and without paring or scraping, put in a pot with cold water, not sufficient to cover them, as they will produce themselves, before they boil, a considerable quantity of fluid. They do not admit being put into a vessel of boiling water, like greens, and whenever they are boiled, should be taken out of the water, and kept dry.

• If the potatoes are tolerably large, it will be necessary, as soon as they begin to boil, to throw in some cold water, and occasionally to repeat it, till the potatoes are boiled to the heart (which will take from half an hour, to an hour and a quarter, or even more according to their size), they will otherwise crack, and burst to pieces on the outside, whilst the inside will be nearly in a crude state, and consequently very unpalatable and unwholesome.

• During the boiling, throwing in a little salt occasionally, is found a great improvement, and it is certain that the slower they are cooked, the better.

• When boiled, pour off the water, and evaporate the moisture,  
by

by replacing the vessel in which the potatoes were boiled, once more over the fire. This makes them remarkably dry and mealy, more especially if they are kept for some time after in a potatoe roaster, an engraving of which is annexed.

‘ They should be brought to the table with the skins on, and eat with a little salt, as bread.

‘ Nothing but experience can satisfy any one, how superior the potatoe is, thus prepared, if the sort is good and mealy. Some prefer roasting potatoes, but the mode above detailed, extracted partly from the interesting paper of Samuel Hayes, esq. of Avondale, in Ireland, (Report on the Culture of Potatoes, p. 103), and partly from the Lancashire re-printed Report (p. 63), and other communications to the Board, is at least equal, if not superior.’ p. 28.

The Appendix contains two plates, one of a *potatoe roaster*, the other of Mr. Walker’s predatory mill for grinding corn by horses.

## MEDICAL and PHILOSOPHICAL

*An Essay on the Abuse of Spirituous Liquors; being an Attempt to exhibit, in its genuine Colours, its pernicious Effects upon the Property, Health, and Morals, of the People, with Rules and Admonitions respecting the Prevention and Cure of this great National Evil.* By A. Fothergill, M. D. F. R. S. &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1796.

In this judicious Essay, Dr. Fothergill describes, with much energy and feeling, the pernicious effects of dram-drinking, in a political, medical, and moral point of view.

‘ Exclusive of war, pestilence, and famine’ (says he) ‘ those dreadful scourges of nations, it is perhaps the most deadly and insidious foe that ever infested this country. For this evil spirit, like a destroying angel, stalks through the land with a steady though silent step, every where spreading its baleful influence over our cities and villages, particularly among our poor infatuated soldiers, sailors, manufacturers, and day-labourers.

‘ It not only poisons the present generation, but even blasts the hopes of the next, by intailing disease, misery, and wretchedness, on their innocent offspring! For the milk of intemperate mothers or nurses, addicted to spirits, is peculiarly injurious to the tender frame of infants whom they suckle. Hence the number of sickly, puny children, bearing at their birth the marks of shrivelled old age, prone to convulsions, and born but to expire.’ p. 15.

He also unfolds to the miserable victims of this detestable practice, the nature of the poison they swallow with such avidity.

‘ Among the lower class of dram-drinkers it matters not whether the liquor be genuine or adulterated, palatable or unpalatable, provided



vided it be cheap, and possessed of the power of procuring speedy intoxication. Thus in the room of pure French brandy they are commonly presented with a fiery malt spirit. This, as we are informed, is sometimes corrected, or rather disguised, by the addition of another noxious ingredient, viz. aqua-fortis.' p. 9.

If this be not sufficient to deter the dram-drinker, nothing will.

*Observations on the Art of making Gold and Silver ; or, the probable Means of replenishing the nearly exhausted Mines of Mexico, Peru, and Potosi ; in a Letter to a Friend. By Richard Pew. To which are added, some Observations on the Structure and Formation of Metals ; and an Attempt to prove the Existence of the Οξύ Σαλασπορον, the Phlogiston of Stahl, the Metallizing Principle, or the Principle of Inflammability. 4to. 1s. Wilkie. 1796.*

Surely a knowledge of this important *secret* could never be of greater utility than at the present moment, when the processes of the state alchemists are rapidly reducing the precious metals into a substance of much less specific gravity. We are afraid, indeed, that the chemistry of Mr. Pew will not sufficiently avail us, since the grand *arcanum* is far from being *practically* explained.

But in this art as all depends on experiment, we must not draw hasty conclusions. It is necessary to examine facts. The author tells us that 'if a small piece of the compound metal, which he calls the *metallizing compound*, be suspended in a solution of lead, there instantly appears on its surface an infinitude of sharp *spicula*, which, when viewed at a distance, give the metal a dark dove colour: that, by degrees these *spicula* extend, and seem to grow into a sort of metallic ribband, sometimes of several inches in length.' This metal, he contends, when chemically examined, is not, as is vulgarly supposed, the *metallizing compound* (or *vegetating metal*) itself, but crystallized lead. This quality, which has hitherto been applied to no useful purpose, has suggested to Mr. Pew ideas, which, he says, not only tend to throw great light on the structure and generation of metals, but in all probability, to furnish the means of increasing their quantity *at pleasure*.

This last and very important conclusion, however, rests on no better foundation than the occurrence of crystallization on the addition of the *metallizing compound* to solutions of silver and gold.

But let us see farther. The author's first inference from this is—

'That all metals are in reality neutral salts, composed of the radical principle of the metal respectively, and what I shall here call the metallizing principle; but some of them, as gold and silver, being nearly insoluble in air, water, or any of the *menstrua* we employ in the common purposes of life, and infusible in the temperature of our atmosphere, they answer many useful purposes, both as media of exchange for all other commodities, and as forming various wholesome utensils for our accommodation.' 2, 6.

The

The attempt to explain the nature of phlogiston, or the metallizing principle, is not satisfactory, nor indeed very intelligible. We cannot understand a principle of levity, not void of weight.

The second inference that Mr. P<sup>ew</sup> draws, is—

‘ That the radical principles of all metals are coeval with and have existed from the creation; and that some of these abound in one country, some in another—as those of gold in Peru, of silver at Potosi, of copper, iron, &c. elsewhere. The manner in which metals are produced I conceive to be the following :—

‘ Some particles of the radical principle of the metal are dissolved in the water which flows through the mine; and if in its course they happen to meet with the metallizing principle, which I may now, perhaps, venture to call the phlogiston, they assume the metallic form, and are deposited as we find them; but as very few of them can probably happen to meet with this principle, by far the greatest number of them must flow into the sea; and hence I draw a third inference—that if we could place such a quantity of the metallizing principle in the course of these waters as would be sufficient to saturate all the particles dissolved, we should be able to produce more gold and silver in the course of one hour than has, perhaps, been produced by the unassisted operations of matter upon matter, from the creation to the present time; upon the same principle, as you very *apropos* suggested, that bars of iron are placed in the currents which flow from copper-mines, in order to convert the vitriol of copper into that metal.’ P. 9.

But in what way this is to be accomplished, we are not at all informed. On this point the author has not been able

————— *ex furno dare lucem.*

## N O V E L S.

*Edmund and Eleonora: or Memoirs of the Houses of Summerfield and Gretton. A Novel. By the Rev. Edmund Marshall, A. M. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Stockdale.*

As a novel, these memoirs are perhaps *unique*: for they exhibit none of those dramatic vicissitudes, in which the principal characters in similar productions are generally made to play their parts;—on the contrary, with scarcely a single exception, every body is *so good*, and every circumstance turns out *so happily*, that the feelings and mind of the reader are not subjected to a single pang, or to a moment of suspense through the whole two volumes!—The work, however, is respectable in point of style, and for the precepts of moral and religious duty it uniformly inculcates. The chief personages are patterns of the best sort: Dr. Summerfield, a worthy and learned divine, declines the tempting opportunities of church prefer-

preference, dividing his time between the duties of a family living, and the education of his nephew Edmund, the hero of the story. This Edmund, a paragon of virtues and accomplishments, is the intended bridegroom of Eleonora Gretton, a young lady, who is also a paragon of beauty; and, notwithstanding the usual course of novels, no obstacle occurs to this projected union. Sir Gregory Gretton, baronet, the father of Eleonora, and the friend of the doctor, is an *honest* and *pious* nabob: having returned from the east with a princely fortune, he displays an extensive but prudent hospitality, and an unrivalled benevolence in the patronage of merit and the relief of distress. His politics also are of the most liberal kind—he steadily resists the flattering overtures of a corrupt administration, and by his example makes a sudden convert of lord W—, an Irish peer, who had long held a seat in parliament under the beck of the minister. Dungarvon, a Scotchman and an unprincipled tool of power, is delineated in colours too strong to be mistaken; he is the emissary, unsuccessfully employed to seduce sir Gregory. On this and several other occasions, the author discovers his political sentiments, a hint of which is broadly given, by a dedication to the independent freeholders of Kent.

*Miranda: a Novel, in a Series of Letters. By John Styles, written in his Fifteenth Year. 12mo, 3s. Boards. Mitchell. 1797.*

Master John Styles informs us that there are persons so wicked and malicious as to assert that he is much older than he has declared himself to be: for which reason he obliges the public with a copy of his baptismal register. According to that, he certainly was born on April 7th, 1782; but we apprehend that a perusal of this novel will afford a more convincing proof of his youth; and perhaps some kind-hearted people may admit that as an excuse for publishing it. Among his subscribers, however, there are some who ought to have given him more friendly advice than to publish what, in a few years, he will heartily wish had been suppressed.

*The Castle of Inchnally: a Tale—alas! too true. By Stephen Cullen, Author of the Haunted Priory, &c. &c. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. sewed. J. Bell. 1796.*

The success of several deservedly popular novels and romances has occasioned the reading public to be pestered with innumerable tales of distressed lovers, enchanted castles, &c. &c. When we consider the very high price of that valuable article *paper*, we are sorry to be under the necessity of pronouncing that this story, in three volumes, has nothing in its circumstances, characters, sentiments, or style, that renders it worthy of critical notice.

*Mental Improvement; or the Beauties and Wonders of Nature and Art. In a Series of Instructive Conversations. By Priscilla Wakefield. Vol. III. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Darton and Harvey. 1797.*

This is an additional volume to a work which we noticed with approbation in Crit. Rev. New Art. Vol. XV. p. 356, and conducted upon the same plan. Nearly sixty subjects of curiosity are treated here in a manner attractive and entertaining, and the subjects are agreeably diversified so as to avoid the appearance of system, on which the young mind can seldom fix its attention.

*Nouveau Système Universel de Voitures inversibles, depuis le Carriole jusqu' aux plus grandes Caravanes, avec une Description des Détails relatifs à la Sûreté, la Commodité, la Légereté, et L'Ornement. Par Jean March: Folio. 15s. sewed. De Boffe.*

*New and Universal System of Carriages not liable to be overset; from the Curriole to the most bulky Caravan, &c. &c. &c.*

If any one compares the light carriages of modern days with the old family coach which now and then appears in the metropolis, he must be sensible of the great improvements made within these few years in our carriages. To say that we have arrived at the summit of perfection, would be absurd, as many things may be added to the best of our structures, which will entitle the inventors to a proportional degree of praise. Among these inventors, the writer of the few pages before us seems entitled to a considerable degree of credit; he has paid attention to every part of our wheel carriages, and has proposed alterations and improvements, which will add much to the security of the rider and the beauty of the vehicle. The great improvement is in the mode of suspension, which, instead of depending on four points, so that the body must be overturned with the carriage, is made to be central; and by being placed in the line of the centre of gravity, the equilibrium of the body is always sustained. Thus when the carriage is overturned, the body will remain upright, nearer indeed to the ground, and the passengers will escape without difficulty. Many improvements are also suggested, by which means, when the horses are unruly, the carriage may be freed from them, and by various contrivances, vehicles are calculated to move without injuring the sick by their motion or by the badness of too long a confined air. All these improvements will be shown by the inventor at his manufactory, opposite the new barracks at Knightsbridge; and an interview with him will in a short time make a person much better acquainted with the subject, than the explanation of the reviewer, or an inspection of the plates which accompany this work, though the latter cannot fail of giving satisfaction.

Ed.

*Elementa Anglicana; or, the Principles of English Grammar displayed and exemplified, in a Method entirely New. By Peter Walkden Fogg. 2 Vols. 12mo. Knott, 1797.*

This work is particularly calculated for the use of schools. 'The design of it' (says the author) 'was to comprise in one book all that was necessary for the pupil at school on the subject of grammar, and, in another, what was proper for the assistance of the tutor.'

The first volume comprehends rules, examples, and exercises. The sounds of our language are diligently examined, but not always accurately explained. To the *i*, we observe, a provincial sound is given by this grammarian; as final, *fauernal*; Isaac, *aneefak*. Having mentioned the sound of *Cæsar*, he erroneously remarks, that it is more properly written *Cæsar*. To many words, he has annexed the pronunciation of the lowest of the vulgar; as, victual, which he calls *oist*; sirrah, *sara*; twelvemonth, *twelmmuth*; cucumber, *concomer*; wreck, *rak*; puppet, *poppit*; construe, *con-sar*; a list which we might easily extend, if it were necessary. He occasionally introduces French words, which he mispronounces; as, monsieur, *monseer*; éclaircissement, *eslercizement*.

The chapter which treats of 'contraction, similarity, and punctuation,' may prove useful to the learner, as it is executed with greater precision than the preceding part of the work, in which sounds are imperfectly and viciously communicated by letters.

Etymology is divided by this writer into *explanatory* and *inflective*, (the proper word is *inflexive*); or that species which illustrates meaning by a deduction of 'words of one signification from those of another;' and that which 'derives, from the original state of a word, the several secondary states adapted to syntax.' Both these branches, however, are explanatory.

The syntax is discussed with perspicuity, and, in general, with accuracy of remark; but the style, in which the rules are delivered, is not so uniformly correct as that of a professor of grammar ought to be.

Numerous examples and exercises are introduced; and a key is added for the purpose of explanation. This part of the work appears to comprehend that originality on which the author plumes himself: but the execution is so confused, as to derogate from the utility of the scheme.

Various dissertations follow the grammatical rules. Universal grammar, and the history of language, are the subjects of the first: the second treats of artificial improvements in speech: letters, sounds, the signification of words, orthography, prosody, and many other topics, are discussed in the other dissertations. In these treatises, we meet with some ingenious remarks; and we also find occasional grounds of justifiable censure.

# THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For JUNE, 1797.

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*Annals of Medicine, for the Year 1796. Exhibiting a concise View of the latest and most important Discoveries in Medicine and Medical Philosophy. By Andrew Duncan, Sen. M.D. and Andrew Duncan, Jun. M.D. Fellows of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh. Vol. I. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.*

**F**OR the change of title in this useful periodical work, we can discover no very satisfactory reason; as in plan, arrangement, and execution, the present volume does not differ from those which have preceded it. The design of the editors is, however, thus expressed—

‘ A volume of the *Annals of Medicine* will now be published every year, on the 1st of January. The plan of this new work will not differ materially from that of the *Medical Commentaries*, of which it may be considered a continuation. But the editors flatter themselves, that, when peace shall again restore free intercourse among nations, the correspondence, they have established, will enable them to give a better account of foreign medical literature than the English reader has been hitherto accustomed to meet with.’  
P. iii.

In the Analysis of medical books, which forms the first part of the work, we meet with a very full account of most of the valuable publications that have lately made their appearance on medical subjects in this country. Under the same head we have also remarked several important foreign tracts.

The second section contains such original observations on medical subjects, as the editors have thought worthy of a place in their collection.

The first affords a detail of some cases of biliary obstructions from calculi, where salivation seemed to be useful in removing the complaints. The histories of these cases were drawn up by Dr. Gibbons, who observes, that—

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‘ Calomel has in biliary obstructions only been given as a deobstruent ; but’ (says he) ‘ I do not recollect, that intended salivation for the removal of biliary calculi has ever been recommended. I know that in the East Indies it is a common practice, for inflammations of the liver, after bleeding, to salivate as quickly as possible : but this is foreign to my purpose. I shall therefore proceed to a relation of such cases as I have treated successfully.’ p. 281.

The plan of cure inculcated by this physician would have been much less exposed to objection, if he had depended solely on mercury. Where other drugs are administered at the same time, it is impossible to estimate the utility of any particular remedy with precision. In the cases here recorded, not only mercury, but soap, aloes, rhubarb, and other substances, were exhibited. It is probable, however, that the chief advantage was derived from the mercury.

Dr. Hosack’s case of hydrocele shows the necessity of caution in the cure of that disease by injection. The observations of the same physician, on the use of calomel in cases of obstinate constipation of the bowels, are not uninteresting to the practitioner. They show the utility of a steady perseverance in such situations.

From the cases described by Dr. Crichton, and Dr. Macarty of Jamaica, no satisfactory conclusions can be drawn. They prove, indeed, that the system frequently undergoes remarkable and unexpected changes from the application of remedies ; but surely the occurrence of such alterations in one or two instances does not warrant their general utility.

The sixth article contains the history of a case of yellow fever, by Dr. Todd, in which the use of calomel seems to have been too long delayed. His reflections on this complaint are these—

‘ The observation of the first importance in this disease, respects the affection of the stomach in an unusual and peculiar manner, indicating that organ to be the principal seat of the complaint ; for it is a fact a thousand times experienced, that calomel has been given to the amount of five or six hundred grains, without displaying any action on the stomach or intestines, though, during that period, the usual dose of any purgative medicine has succeeded in its common operation. It has also been observed, in almost every case, that where the mercurial has affected the salivary glands, and produced ptyalism, the patient has recovered. On every occasion where I have seen the Peruvian bark given, it has invariably increased the irritation of the stomach, the heat, and the quickness of the pulse : and when it has been introduced into the intestines by injection, considerable tumefaction and pain about the navel has taken place ; and, in some cases, a total stoppage of the urine.

‘ After

'After a salivation has succeeded the use of calomel, the Peruvian bark is generally given with success, to restore the tone of the stomach, and to restrain the discharge from the mouth. The cold-bath has been lately tried without success. Blood-letting, which excited so much discussion, and had so many advocates in consequence of the temporary abatement of the general symptoms, is now very nearly abandoned; nor was it relinquished by its supporters, but on the most complete proofs of its fatal effects. Indeed, the minds of medical men appear now to be made up as to the most proper treatment of this fever; and in mercury is placed their dependence.' P. 340.

The case recorded by Dr. Shee is by no means satisfactory; there was evidently a complication of disorders. The evidence, therefore, which it affords of the superior advantage of the author's mode of curing diabetes by the use of camphor and antispasmodic remedies, is only of the presumptive kind. His plan of treatment must be employed under circumstances of greater certainty in respect to the nature of the disease, before its utility can be fairly appreciated.

Dr. Borthwick's account of the fatal effects of a plumb-stone, which in swallowing was forced into the trachea, is well drawn up; and the author's remarks are judicious. Little, however, can be done in such cases, except the exact situation of the extraneous body can be ascertained; which, in the present instance, seems to have been a matter of great uncertainty, until shown by dissection.

The histories of the cases of injury done to the anterior parts of the brain, by Dr. Scott, show, with many others in books of surgery, that that organ can sustain considerable mischief in some instances, without any pernicious effects being experienced.

Dr. Wilson's case is singular, but affords nothing useful to the views of the practitioner. The fact of a nail remaining in the stomach nearly fifteen months, was, however, deserving of being recorded in such a collection as the present.

The third section, as usual, comprehends 'Medical News.' Under this head, the editors have introduced a portion of curious and interesting matter. The remarks of Mr. Scott on the use of the nitric acid are of this kind. 'If they be confirmed by the experience of others' (say the editors) 'the nitric acid will afford a most valuable remedy for combating diseases, against which the remedies commonly employed are often attended with so much inconvenience.'

On the use of this powerful acid, we have the following introductory reflections—

'It is acknowledged, that all the calces of mercury which are

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used



used in medicine, contain a quantity of pure air; but I know of no direct experiment having been hitherto made, to prove that the effect of mercury in diseases of the liver, or in other maladies, depends on this principle; and not on the metal itself. The experiments, that I had made on the base of the bile, inclined me to wish to take myself a quantity of pure air, united to some substance for which it has no great attraction. I reflected on the different ways that are employed by chemists to oxygenate inanimate matter; for I believed, that the same chemical attractions would produce a similar effect in the living body, although they might be disturbed in their operation by the vitality of the machine, and the variety of the principles of which it is composed.

‘The nitric acid, as may be supposed, was one of the first substances that occurred to me as fit for my purpose; for it is known to contain about four parts of vital air, united to one of azote, with a certain proportion of water. These principles can be separated from each other by the intervention of many other bodies, as chemists find every day in their operations. I was led, besides, to give a preference to the nitric acid, from observing, that it dissolves very completely the resinous base of the bile. I have since found, that the celebrated M. Fourcroy had made the same observation before me.’ P. 377.

After consulting such accounts of the effects of this remedy on the human body, as could be procured, the writer ventured upon its use himself, and seems to have been qualified to judge of its effects, from being affected with a diseased state of the liver. This is the journal of the effects it produced on himself—

‘In September 1793, I began to take the nitric acid. I mixed about a dram of the strongest that I could procure, with a sufficient quantity of water; and I was happy to find, that I could finish that quantity in the course of a few hours, without any disagreeable effects from it. The following is the journal that I kept of myself at the time.

‘11th September, 1st day. Took at different times about a dram of strong nitric acid, diluted with water. Soon after drinking it, I feel a sense of a warmth in my stomach and chest; but I find no disagreeable sensation from it, nor any other material effect.

‘2d. I have taken to-day a considerable quantity of acid, diluted with water, as much as I could easily drink during the forenoon.

‘3d. I have continued the acid. I feel my gums affected from it, and they are somewhat red, and enlarged between the teeth. I slept ill; but could lie for a length of time on my left side, which, from some disease in my liver, had not been the case for many months before. I perceive a pain in the back of my head,

head, resembling what I have commonly felt when taking mercury.

' 4th. My gums are a little tender. I continue the acid as before. I still find a pain in my head, and about my jaws, like what arises from mercury. I perceive no symptoms of my liver-complaint.

' 5th. I have taken the acid; and always feel an agreeable sense of heat after drinking it. I spit more than usual.

' 6th. I continue the acid. I observe my mouth forer to-day, and spit more.

' 7th. I think I am now sufficiently oxygenated. I feel my mouth so troublesome, that I shall take no more acid.

' From this time my mouth got gradually well, and I found my health considerably improved.' P. 379.

On its power of removing those symptoms of syphilis that so frequently baffle the efforts of practitioners, we shall introduce the following observations—

' It was administered,' (says the author) ' at my desire, by my friend Mr. Anderson, surgeon of the 77th regiment, to a person who had a headach that came on every night, and which had long been suspected to arise from lues. He had taken several courses of mercury on this account, which carried away all the uneasy symptoms; but they as constantly returned after a certain period. On using the acid for about a fortnight, he got perfectly free from his headach, and he remained very well for a few months, as was usual to him after mercury.

' I have now had a pretty extensive experience of the good effects of the nitric acid in syphilis; and I have reason to believe, that it is not in general less effectual than mercury in removing that disease in all its forms, and in every stage of its continuance. I think that in some cases it has even superior powers; for I have succeeded completely with the acid, when mercury, administered both in this country \* and in Europe for years together, had failed of success. We appear to be able to carry the degree of oxygenation of the body to a greater length by means of the nitric acid, and to continue it longer than we can do by mercury.

' A mass of mercury, in the circulation, produces many disagreeable effects, that make it often necessary to give over its use before it has answered its intention: but the nitric acid may be taken a long time without any material injury to the health; nor are its effects on the mouth, in producing inflammation, and a flow of saliva, so disagreeable as from mercury.

' A man could hardly offer to his species a greater blessing than a new remedy against any of the host of diseases that assail us: but

\* Hindostan. Rev.

the reputation of specifics, with the exception of a few instances, has arisen only from the weakness of the human mind. Am I too deceiving myself, and attempting to lead others into error?

'As the acid that I distil is not strong, and is of unequal strength at different times, I am regulated chiefly by the taste in giving it. I put half or three fourths of a Madeira glassful of it in two pints of water, or I make two pints of water as acid as it can well be drunk. This quantity is finished every twenty-four hours, taking about a Madeira glassful only at a time.

'I have sometimes removed syphilitic symptoms with the acid in five days; more commonly, I think, they give way in a fortnight; but sometimes, though seldom, they continue for twenty days without any apparent relief. I must confess, that in some cases I have failed altogether; but in those cases, mercury had long been given to little purpose; the bones were highly diseased, and the habit probably of a peculiar kind. I have cured syphilis with the acid, under a variety of forms, where no other remedy had ever been employed, and for above two years I have seen no relapse in those cases. I have administered it against the primary symptoms of the disease, and I have given it for exostoses, for carious bones, for nocturnal pains, for eruptions and ulcers of the skin, and for all the train of misery that is attendant on lues. I have the pleasure to see, that several of my friends have begun to use the nitric acid in syphilis, and in other diseases. An account of their experience, which every body will esteem the most respectable authority, will make the subject of a future paper.' p. 383.

We have been thus full in our account of this discovery, because, if it should be found by future experience to be founded on fact, it must prove of great importance to the profession. It is necessary, however, to observe that we have here no information respecting the effects which it produced on the stomach, bowels, &c. though we suspect it must act powerfully on these parts, even when much diluted.

We also meet with useful and curious observations in some other articles under this head. Those of Dr. Brodbelt on the oxygen gas contained in the air-bladders of the sword-fish, as well as Mr. Kellie's on the anatomy of the shark, are deserving of attention.

On the whole, we have no doubt but that the present work will be found a useful and convenient vehicle of medical information; though, as a publication dignified with the title of '*Annals of Medicine*,' we must confess that we expected something more.

*A Journey from Prince of Wales's Fort in Hudson's Bay, to the Northern Ocean. Undertaken by Order of the Hudson's Bay Company, for the Discovery of Copper Mines, a North West Passage, &c. In the Years 1769, 1770, 1771, and 1772. By Samuel Hearne. 4to. 1l. 7s. Cadell and Davies. 1795.*

OUR ears are repeatedly stunned with the praises of savage life : and the admirers of the state of nature, as it is foolishly called, take pleasure in contrasting the defects of civilisation with the little solid comfort to be found in their favourite state of independence. Few of these encomiums are founded on an accurate examination of facts. It is a work of labour to peruse the history of mankind in different parts of the world. The liberty of a roaming Indian is sufficient to fill up a volume, without entering into the question of the inconveniences he sustains from want of food,—from illness,—from wounds. To give our readers a true insight into the so-much-praised savage state, the work before us is particularly calculated ; it aims at no graces of style, no ornaments of composition or language. The author now and then attempts to philosophise, but with no great success: and his excellence consists in giving us a plain narration of incidents during a long journey in the wildest part of North America. The object was to serve a commercial company : but if that has not been attained, all who are desirous of becoming acquainted with savage manners, will be pleased with the description given of them by a person who had the best means of gaining a complete insight into the life of a North American.

A few extracts will, we are convinced, be entertaining to our readers. In the first expedition, our author failed : and from the causes assigned for this failure, by Matonabee, a great leader, the fair sex will not join in the encomiums bestowed on uncivilisation.

‘ During my conversation with this leader, he asked me very seriously, If I would attempt another journey for the discovery of the copper-mines ? And on my answering in the affirmative, provided I could get better guides than I had hitherto been furnished with, he said he would readily engage in that service, provided the governor at the fort would employ him. In answer to this, I assured him his offer would be gladly accepted ; and as I had already experienced every hardship that was likely to accompany any future trial, I was determined to complete the discovery, even at the risque of life itself. Matonabee assured me, that by the accounts received from his own countrymen, the Southern Indians, and myself, it was very probable I might not experience so much hardship during the whole journey, as I had already felt, though scarcely advanced one third part of the journey.

‘ He attributed all our misfortunes to the misconduct of my guides, and the very plan we pursued, by the desire of the governor, in not taking any women with us on this journey, was, he said, the principal thing that occasioned all our wants: “ for, said he, when all the men are heavy laden, they can neither hunt nor travel to any considerable distance; and in case they meet with success in hunting, who is to carry the produce of their labour? Women, added he, were made for labour; one of them can carry, or haul, as much as two men can do. They also pitch our tents, make and mend our clothing, keep us warm at night; and, in fact, there is no such thing as travelling any considerable distance, or for any length of time, in this country, without their assistance.” “ Women, said he again, though they do every thing, are maintained at a trifling expence; for as they always stand cook, the very licking of their fingers in scarce times, is sufficient for their subsistence.” This, however odd it may appear, is but too true a description of the situation of women in this country: it is at least so in appearance; for the women always carry the provisions, and it is more than probable they help themselves when the men are not present.’ P. 54.

From such conduct to their women, we cannot expect either much refinement of manners in the one, or beauty in the other sex; and the following description of the latter fully answered our expectations—

‘ From these Indians Matonabee purchased another wife; so that he had now no less than seven, most of whom would for size have made good grenadiers. He prided himself much in the height and strength of his wives, and would frequently say, few women would carry or haul heavier loads; and though they had, in general, a very masculine appearance, yet he preferred them to those of a more delicate form and moderate stature. In a country like this, where a partner in excessive hard labour is the chief motive for the union, and the softer endearments of a conjugal life are only considered as a secondary object, there seems to be great propriety in such a choice; but if all the men were of this way of thinking, what would become of the greater part of the women, who in general are but of low stature, and many of them of a most delicate make, though not of the exactest proportion, or most beautiful mould? Take them in a body, the women are as destitute of real beauty as any nation I ever saw, though there are some few of them, when young, who are tolerable; but the care of a family, added to their constant hard labour, soon make the most beautiful among them look old and wrinkled, even before they are thirty; and several of the more ordinary ones at that age are perfect antidotes to love and gallantry. This, however, does not render them less dear and valuable to their owners, which is a lucky circumstance

stance for those women, and a certain proof that there is no such thing as any rule or standard for beauty. Ask a Northern Indian, what is beauty? he will answer, a broad flat face, small eyes, high cheek-bones, three or four broad black lines a-cross each cheek, a low forehead, a large broad chin, a clumsy hook-nose, a tawney hide, and breasts hanging down to the belt. Those beauties are greatly heightened, or at least rendered more valuable, when the possessor is capable of dressing all kinds of skins, converting them into the different parts of their clothing, and able to carry eight or ten stone \* in summer, or haul a much greater weight in winter. These, and other similar accomplishments, are all that are sought after, or expected, of a Northern Indian woman. As to their temper, it is of little consequence; for the men have a wonderful facility in making the most stubborn comply with as much alacrity as could possibly be expected from those of the mildest and most obliging turn of mind; so that the only real difference is, the one obeys through fear, and the other complies cheerfully from a willing mind; both knowing that what is commanded must be done. They are, in fact, all kept at a great distance, and the rank they hold in the opinion of the men cannot be better expressed or explained, than by observing the method of treating or serving them at meals, which would appear very humiliating, to an European woman, though custom makes it sit light on those whose lot it is to bear it. It is necessary to observe, that when the men kill any large beast, the women are always sent to bring it to the tent: when it is brought there, every operation it undergoes, such as splitting, drying, pounding, &c. is performed by the women. When any thing is to be prepared for eating, it is the women who cook it; and when it is done, the wives and daughters of the greatest captains in the country are never served, till all the males, even those who are in the capacity of servants, have eaten what they think proper; and in times of scarcity it is frequently their lot to be left without a single morsel. It is, however, natural to think they take the liberty of helping themselves in secret; but this must be done with great prudence, as capital embezzlements of provisions in such times are looked on as affairs of real consequence, and frequently subject them to a very severe beating. If they are practised by a woman whose youth and inattention to domestic concerns cannot plead in her favour, they will for ever be a blot in her character, and few men will chuse to have her for a wife.' P. 88.

The feelings of the savages towards sick persons may be known from the following extracts—

' Having finished such wood-work as the Indians thought would be necessary, and having augmented our stock of dried meat and fat, the twenty-first was appointed for moving; but one of the wo-

\* The stone here meant is fourteen pounds.'

men

men having been taken in labour, and it being rather an extraordinary case, we were detained more than two days. The instant, however, the poor woman was delivered, which was not until she had suffered all the pains usually felt on those occasions for near fifty-two hours, the signal was made for moving, when the poor creature took her infant on her back and set out with the rest of the company; and though another person had the humanity to haul her sledge for her, (for one day only,) she was obliged to carry a considerable load beside her little charge, and was frequently obliged to wade knee-deep in water and wet snow. Her very looks, exclusive of her moans, were a sufficient proof of the great pain she endured, inasmuch that although she was a person I greatly disliked, her distress at this time so overcame my prejudice, that I never felt more for any of her sex in my life; indeed her sighs pierced me to the soul, and rendered me very miserable, as it was not in my power to relieve her.' P. 91.

At another place a sick woman is left behind—

'One of the Indian's wives, who for some time had been in a consumption, had for a few days past become so weak as to be incapable of travelling, which, among those people, is the most deplorable state to which a human being can possibly be brought. Whether she had been given over by the doctors, or that it was for want of friends among them, I cannot tell, but certain it is, that no expedients were taken for her recovery; so that, without much ceremony, she was left unassisted, to perish above-ground.

'Though this was the first instance of the kind I had seen, it is the common, and indeed the constant practice of those Indians; for when a grown person is so ill, especially in the summer, as not to be able to walk, and too heavy to be carried, they say it is better to leave one who is past recovery, than for the whole family to sit down by them and starve to death; well knowing that they cannot be of any service to the afflicted. On those occasions, therefore, the friends or relations of the sick generally leave them some victuals and water; and, if the situation of the place will afford it, a little firing. When those articles are provided, the person to be left is acquainted with the road which the others intend to go; and then, after covering them well up with deer skins, &c. they take their leave, and walk away crying.

'Sometimes persons thus left, recover; and come up with their friends, or wander about till they meet with other Indians, whom they accompany till they again join their relations. Instances of this kind are seldom known. The poor woman above mentioned, however, came up with us three several times, after having been left in the manner described. At length, poor creature! she dropt behind, and no one attempted to go back in search of her.

'A custom apparently so unnatural is perhaps not to be found among any other of the human race: if properly considered, how-

ever, it may with justice be ascribed to necessity and self-preservation, rather than to the want of humanity and social feeling, which ought to be the characteristic of men, as the noblest part of the creation. Necessity, added to national custom, contributes principally to make scenes of this kind less shocking to those people, than they must appear to the more civilized part of mankind.' P. 202.

Reverence to the aged is a beautiful part of civilisation: mark the contrast in the savage state—

' Old age is the greatest calamity that can befall a Northern Indian; for when he is past labour, he is neglected, and treated with great disrespect, even by his own children. They not only serve him last at meals, but generally give him the coarsest and worst of the victuals: and such of the skins as they do not chuse to wear, are made up in the clumsiest manner into clothing for their aged parents; who, as they had, in all probability, treated their fathers and mothers with the same neglect, in their turns, submitted patiently to their lot, even without a murmur, knowing it to be the common misfortune attendant on old age; so that they may be said to wait patiently for the melancholy hour when, being no longer capable of walking, they are to be left alone, to starve, and perish for want. This, however shocking and unnatural it may appear, is nevertheless so common, that, among those people, one half at least of the aged persons of both sexes absolutely die in this miserable condition.' P. 345.

Hence we are not to be surprised at this remark from our author—

' I never saw a set of people that possessed so little humanity, or that could view the distresses of their fellow-creatures with so little feeling and unconcern; for though they seem to have a great affection for their wives and children, yet they will laugh at and ridicule the distress of every other person who is not immediately related to them.' P. 51.

Murder, however, is, it seems, in some cases, held dishonourable—

' Notwithstanding the Northern Indians are so covetous, and pay so little regard to private property as to take every advantage of bodily strength to rob their neighbours, not only of their goods, but their wives, yet they are, in other respects, the mildest tribe, or nation, that is to be found on the borders of Hudson's Bay: for let their affronts or losses be ever so great, they will never seek any other revenge than that of wrestling. As for murder, which is so common among all the tribes of Southern Indians, it is seldom heard of among them. A murderer is shunned and detested by all the tribe, and is obliged to wander up and down, forlorn and forsaken even



even by his own relations and former friends. In that respect a murderer may be truly compared to Cain, after he had killed his brother Abel. The cool reception he meets with by all who know him, occasions him to grow melancholy, and he never leaves any place but the whole company say, "There goes the murderer!" The women, it is true, sometimes receive an unlucky blow from their husbands for misbehaviour, which occasions their death; but this is thought nothing of: and for one man or woman to kill another out of revenge, or through jealousy, or on any other account, is so extraordinary, that very few are now existing who have been guilty of it. At the present moment I know not one, beside Matonabee, who ever made an attempt of that nature; and he is, in every other respect, a man of such universal good sense, and, as an Indian, of such great humanity, that I am at a loss how to account for his having been guilty of such a crime, unless it be by his having lived among the Southern Indians so long, as to become tainted with their blood-thirsty, revengeful, and vindictive disposition.' p. 108.

This Matonabee is the author's favourite: and besides pummelling one of his wives to death, he stabbed the husband of another woman several times, and made no scruple to be in a party with his brethren to assassinate a company of a different tribe, sleeping quietly in their huts.

The profusion of the rich, in civilised life, is often and deservedly cried out against: but it bears no proportion to that of the savages. A savage family frequently *wastes* more in one day, than the richest family in London or Paris does in a dozen years. Of this we have had frequent proofs in the narration of this journey.

'We crossed' (says Mr. Hearne) 'several lakes on the ice; of which Thoy-noy-kyed Lake and Thoy-coy-lyned Lake were the principal. We also crossed a few inconsiderable creeks and rivers, which were only useful as they furnished a small supply of fish to the natives. The weather, as I have before observed, was in general disagreeable, with a great deal of rain or snow. To make up for that inconvenience, however, the deer were so plentiful, that the Indians killed not only a sufficient quantity for our daily support, but frequently great numbers merely for the fat, marrow, and tongues. To induce them to desist from this practice, I often interested myself, and endeavoured, as much as possible, to convince them in the clearest terms of which I was master, of the great impropriety of such waste; particularly at a time of the year when their skins could not be of any use for clothing, and when the anxiety to proceed on our journey would not permit us to stay long enough in one place to eat up half the spoils of their hunting. As national customs, however, are not easily overcome, my remonstrances proved ineffectual; and I was always answered, that it was certainly right to kill plenty,

plenty, and live on the best, when and where it was to be got, for that it would be impossible to do it where every thing was scarce: and they insisted on it, that killing plenty of deer and other game in one part of the country, could never make them scarce in another. Indeed, they were so accustomed to kill every thing that came within their reach, that few of them could pass by a small bird's nest, without slaying the young ones, or destroying the eggs.'  
p. 117.

But if savage life is attended with so many inconveniences, we must not deny that there are cases in which the habits of a roaming Indian will be found advantageous: and we suspect that very few, if any, of our countrymen could have exerted, in a desert wild, so much fortitude and ingenuity as the savage woman whose singular adventures are given in the following extract—

' On the eleventh of January, as some of my companions were hunting, they saw the track of a strange snow-shoe, which they followed; and at a considerable distance came to a little hut, where they discovered a young woman sitting alone. As they found that she understood their language, they brought her with them to the tents. On examination, she proved to be one of the Western Dog-ribbed Indians, who had been taken prisoner by the Athapuscow Indians in the summer of one thousand seven hundred and seventy; and in the following summer, when the Indians that took her prisoner were near this part, she had eloped from them, with an intent to return to her own country; but the distance being so great, and having, after she was taken prisoner, been carried in a canoe the whole way, the turnings and windings of the rivers and lakes were so numerous, that she forgot the track; so she built the hut in which we found her, to protect her from the weather during the winter, and here she had resided from the first setting in of the fall.

' From her account of the moons past since her elopement, it appeared that she had been near seven months without seeing a human face; during all which time she had supported herself very well by snaring partridges, rabbits, and squirrels; she had also killed two or three beaver, and some porcupines. That she did not seem to have been in want is evident, as she had a small stock of provisions by her when she was discovered; and was in good health and condition, and I think one of the finest women, of a real Indian, that I have seen in any part of North America.

' The methods practised by this poor creature to procure a livelihood were truly admirable, and are great proofs that necessity is the real mother of invention. When the few deer sinews that she had an opportunity of taking with her were all expended in making shoes, and sewing her clothing, she had nothing to supply their place

place but the sinews of the rabbits legs and feet; these she twisted together for that purpose with great dexterity and success. The rabbits, &c. which she caught in those snares, not only furnished her with a comfortable subsistence, but of the skins she made a suit of neat and warm clothing for the winter. It is scarcely possible to conceive that a person in her forlorn situation could be so composed as to be capable of contriving or executing any thing that was not absolutely necessary to her existence; but there were sufficient proofs that she had extended her care much farther, as all her clothing, beside being calculated for real service, showed great taste, and exhibited no little variety of ornament. The materials, though rude, were very curiously wrought, and so judiciously placed, as to make the whole of her garb have a very pleasing, though rather romantic appearance.

Her leisure hours from hunting had been employed in twisting the inner rind or bark of willows into small lines, like net-twine, of which she had some hundred fathoms by her; with this she intended to make a fishing-net as soon as the spring advanced. It is of the inner bark of willows, twisted in this manner, that the Dog-ribbed Indians make their fishing-nets; and they are much preferable to those made by the Northern Indians.

Five or six inches of an iron hoop, made into a knife, and the shank of an arrow-head of iron, which served her as an awl, were all the metals this poor woman had with her when she eloped; and with these implements she had made herself complete snow-shoes, and several other useful articles.

Her method of making a fire was equally singular and curious, having no other materials for that purpose than two hard sulphurous stones. These, by long friction and hard knocking, produced a few sparks, which at length communicated to some touchwood; but as this method was attended with great trouble, and not always with success, she did not suffer her fire to go out all the winter. Hence we may conclude that she had no idea of producing fire by friction, in the manner practised by the Esquimaux, and many other uncivilised nations; because if she had, the above-mentioned precaution would have been unnecessary.

The singularity of the circumstance, the comeliness of her person, and her approved accomplishments, occasioned a strong contest between several of the Indians of my party, who should have her for a wife; and the poor girl was actually won and lost at wrestling by near half a score different men the same evening. My guide, Matonabee, who at that time had no less than seven wives, all women grown, besides a young girl of eleven or twelve years old, would have put in for the prize also, had not one of his wives made him ashamed of it, by telling him that he had already more wives than he could properly attend. This piece of satire, however true, proved fatal to the poor girl who dared to make so open a declaration;

claration; for the great man, Matonabee, who would willingly have been thought equal to eight or ten men in every respect, took it as such an affront, that he fell on her with both hands and feet, and bruised her to such a degree, that after lingering some time she died.

‘ When the Athapuscow Indians took the above Dog-ribbed Indian woman prisoner, they, according to the universal custom of those savages, surprised her and her party in the night, and killed every soul in the tent, except herself and three other young women. Among those whom they killed, were her father, mother, and husband. Her young child, four or five months old, she concealed in a bundle of clothing, and took with her undiscovered in the night; but when she arrived at the place where the Athapuscow Indians had left their wives, (which was not far distant,) they began to examine her bundle, and finding the child, one of the women took it from her, and killed it on the spot.

‘ This last piece of barbarity gave her such a disgust to those Indians, that notwithstanding the man who took care of her treated her in every respect as his wife, and was, she said, remarkably kind to, and even fond of her; so far was she from being able to reconcile herself to any of the tribe, that she rather chose to expose herself to misery and want, than live in ease and affluence among persons who had so cruelly murdered her infant. The poor woman’s relation of this shocking story, which she delivered in a very affecting manner, only excited laughter among the savages of my party.

‘ In a conversation with this woman afterward, she told us, that her country lies so far to the westward, that she had never seen iron, or any other kind of metal, till she was taken prisoner. All of her tribe, she observed, made their hatchets and ice-chisfels of deer’s horns, and their knives of stones and bones; that their arrows were shod with a kind of slate, bones, and deer’s horns; and the instruments which they employed to make their wood-work were nothing but beavers’ teeth. Though they had frequently heard of the useful materials which the nations or tribes to the east of them were supplied with from the English, so far were they from drawing nearer, to be in the way of trading for iron-work, &c. that they were obliged to retreat farther back, to avoid the Athapuscow Indians, who made surprising slaughter among them, both in winter and summer.’ p. 262.

Our readers, we are persuaded, must now smile at the fanciful descriptions of the state of nature: bad as we may be, and absurd and ridiculous as many of our customs are, we are still happily removed from the barbarity of savage manners. But we must confess ourselves a little disappointed when we found the brute creation deprived of some little pre-eminence to

to which a part of it has been accustomed; and the beaver, like the ant, must be content with the praises bestowed on it in fable. It is right that our prejudices should be removed; and we attended peculiarly to our author's account of the beaver —

‘ Those who have undertaken to describe the inside of beaver-houses, as having several apartments appropriated to various uses; such as eating, sleeping, store-houses for provisions, and one for their natural occasions, &c. must have been very little acquainted with the subject; or, which is still worse, guilty of attempting to impose on the credulous, by representing the greatest falsehoods as real facts. Many years constant residence among the Indians, during which I had an opportunity of seeing several hundreds of those houses, has enabled me to affirm that every thing of the kind is entirely void of truth; for, notwithstanding the sagacity of those animals, it has never been observed that they aim at any other conveniencies in their houses, than to have a dry place to lie on; and there they usually eat their victuals, which they occasionally take out of the water.

‘ It frequently happens, that some of the large-houses are found to have one or more partitions, if they deserve that appellation; but that is no more than a part of the main building, left by the sagacity of the beaver to support the roof. On such occasions it is common for those different apartments, as some are pleased to call them, to have no communication with each other but by water; so that in fact they may be called double or treble houses, rather than different apartments of the same house. I have seen a large beaver house built in a small island, that had near a dozen apartments under one roof: and, two or three of these only excepted, none of them had any communication with each other but by water. As there were beaver enough to inhabit each apartment, it is more than probable that each family knew its own, and always entered at their own door, without having any farther connection with their neighbours than a friendly intercourse; and to join their united labours in erecting their separate habitations, and building their dams where required. It is difficult to say whether their interest on other occasions was any ways reciprocal. The Indians of my party killed twelve old beaver, and twenty-five young and half-grown ones out of the house above mentioned; and on examination found that several had escaped their vigilance, and could not be taken but at the expence of more trouble than would be sufficient to take double the number in a less difficult situation.

‘ Travellers who assert that the beaver have two doors to their houses, one on the land-side, and the other next the water, seem to be less acquainted with those animals than others who assign them an elegant suite of apartments. Such a proceeding would be quite contrary

contrary to their manner of life, and at the same time would render their houses of no use, either to protect them from their enemies, or guard them against the extreme cold in winter.

The quicheatches, or wolvereens, are great enemies to the beaver; and if there were a passage into their houses on the land-side, would not leave one of them alive where-ever they came.

I cannot refrain from smiling, when I read the accounts of different authors who have written on the œconomy of those animals, as there seems to be a contest between them, who shall most exceed in fiction. But the compiler of the *Wonders of Nature and Art* seems, in my opinion, to have succeeded best in this respect; as he has not only collected all the fictions into which other writers on the subject have run, but has so greatly improved on them, that little remains to be added to his account of the beaver, beside a vocabulary of their language, a code of their laws, and a sketch of their religion, to make it the most complete natural history of that animal which can possibly be offered to the public.

There cannot be a greater imposition, or indeed a grosser insult, on common understanding, than the wish to make us believe the stories of some of the works ascribed to the beaver; and though it is not to be supposed that the compiler of a general work can be intimately acquainted with every subject of which it may be necessary to treat, yet a very moderate share of understanding is surely sufficient to guard him against giving credit to such marvellous tales, however smoothly they may be told, or however boldly they may be asserted, by the romancing traveller.

To deny that the beaver is possessed of a very considerable degree of sagacity, would be as absurd in me, as it is in those authors who think they cannot allow them too much. I shall willingly grant them their full share; but it is impossible for any one to conceive how, or by what means, a beaver, whose full height when standing erect does not exceed two feet and a half, or three feet at most, and whose fore-paws are not much larger than a half-crown piece, can "drive stakes as thick as a man's leg into the ground three or four feet deep." Their "wattling those stakes with twigs," is equally absurd; and their "plastering the inside of their houses with a composition of mud and straw, and swimming with mud and stones on their tails," are still more incredible. The form and size of the animal, notwithstanding all its sagacity, will not admit of its performing such feats; and it would be as impossible for a beaver to use its tail as a trowel, except on the surface of the ground on which it walks, as it would have been for sir James Thornhill to have painted the dome of St. Paul's cathedral without the assistance of scaffolding. The joints of their tail will not admit of their turning it over their backs on any occasion whatever, as it has a natural inclination to bend downwards; and it is not without some consideration.

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siderable exertion that they can keep it from trailing on the ground. This being the case, they cannot sit erect like a squirrel, which is their common posture; particularly when eating, or when they are cleaning themselves, as a cat or squirrel does, without having their tails bent forward between their legs; and which may not improperly be called their trencher.

‘ So far are the beaver from driving stakes into the ground when building their houses, that they lay most of the wood crosswise, and nearly horizontal, and without any other order than that of leaving a hollow or cavity in the middle; when any unnecessary branches project inward, they cut them off with their teeth, and throw them in among the rest, to prevent the mud from falling through the roof. It is a mistaken notion, that the wood-work is first completed and then plaistered; for the whole of their houses, as well as their dams, are from the foundation one mass of wood and mud, mixed with stones, if they can be procured. The mud is always taken from the edge of the bank, or the bottom of the creek or pond; near the door of the house; and though their fore-paws are so small, yet it is held close up between them, under their throat, that they carry both mud and stones; while they always drag the wood with their teeth.

‘ All their work is executed in the night; and they are so expeditious in completing it, that in the course of one night I have known them to have collected as much mud at their houses as to have amounted to some thousands of their little handfuls; and when any mixture of grass or straw has appeared in it, it has been, most assuredly, mere chance, owing to the nature of the ground from which they had taken it. As to their designedly making a composition for that purpose, it is entirely void of truth.

‘ It is a great piece of policy in those animals, to cover, or plaister, as it is usually called, the outside of their houses every fall with fresh mud, and as late as possible in the autumn, even when the frost becomes pretty severe; as by this means it soon freezes as hard as a stone, and prevents their common enemy, the quichehatch, from disturbing them during the winter. And as they are frequently seen to walk over their work, and sometimes to give a flap with their tail, particularly when plunging into the water, this has, without doubt, given rise to the vulgar opinion that they use their tails as a trowel, with which they plaister their houses; whereas that flapping of the tail is no more than a custom, which they always preserve, even when they become tame and domestic, and more particularly so when they are startled.’ P. 229.

From these extracts our readers will judge what they may expect from the perusal of the work itself. The manners of the savages are well delineated; the animals and birds which inhabit the high northern latitudes, are well described; a very good

good account is given of the country, as well as it could be done by a person not having any good means of measuring distances: and we recommend the work to all persons of leisure who are fond of books of voyages and travels.

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*A Critical and Practical Elucidation of the Morning and Evening Prayer of the Church of England. By John Shepherd, M. A. &c. &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Faulder. 1796.*

**P**REFIXED to this work is a judicious account of the reforms made in the public liturgies at different periods. In general, the author is correct in his statements: at times we could have wished him to be more particular. Thus, no one could have determined the question better than himself, of the relation which the present prayer-book stands in, to the mass-book of the church of Rome: yet to the account of mattins is subjoined the following note—

‘ Dr. Bennet, who has calculated “ what quantity of our several offices is taken from Popish liturgies,” (under which appellation I presume we must include the Offices of Sarum, and of the Gallican church, as well as of the Romish,) informs us, that, setting aside whatever is borrowed from the scripture, the Apocrypha, or the fathers of the first four centuries “ there remains in the Morning Prayer about one fourteenth part.” The accuracy of all his calculations I undertake not to warrant.’ p. xxii.

No one who knows any thing of the matter will warrant such a calculation: and we rather expected from our author, that, instead of his indifferent negation, he would have said plainly that the calculation was not entitled to any authority.

It is a singular circumstance, not generally known, that the use of the prayer-book is independent of the hierarchy (a term improperly used by our author), and that it rested originally solely upon the authority of laymen. The bill for the uniformity of common prayer was passed against the consent of all the spiritual lords in the house; and on this account the usual form of ‘ assent of the lords spiritual and temporal,’ was omitted. This circumstance is noted by our author, and is a strong proof of his impartiality, against which he is very seldom found to infringe: and the famous conference in Charles the Second’s time, with a view to the reformation of the liturgy, is in particular very well described. The frivolity of some objections made by the Puritans, and the stiff opposition of the established divines to some easy amendments, are equally reprobated.

In the Elucidation, we discover a great fund of ecclesiastical knowledge:



knowledge: but some questions are not treated with the complete investigation of which the author seems capable. We allude particularly to what he says on the doxology, and on the creeds. On the doxology, which he thinks is borrowed from our Saviour's last directions to the apostles on baptism, he leaves us to rest on the authority of Basil for its apostolical origin. If no better authority can be given, we may well scruple to allow it so great antiquity. Polycarp's prayer will not, in this instance, bear us out: and we recommend to our author, in his next edition, to make no comment from Irenæus, Barnabas, Clement, Polycarp, or the Constitutions, without informing his readers what weight they are allowed to have by good judges in this or any other controversy.

‘ However differently the hymn may have been expressed, this we may assert, that the use of it has been universal in the church of Christ. The ancients concluded prayers often, and sermons always, with a doxology. From Cassian, the disciple and strenuous defender of Chrysostom, we learn, that the Greeks repeated *Gloria Patri* after the last psalm.—In all the western churches, that of Rome excepted, it was uniformly used at the end of every psalm. This is the path in which the church of England walked at her reformation, occasionally admitting this hymn among her prayers, and ordaining that, at the end of every psalm, of *Benedicite*, *Benedictus*, *Magnificat*, and *Nunc dimittis*, *Gloria Patri* shall be repeated.’  
P. 119.

This universality cannot be allowed without better authority than our author has produced: and surely better might have been given.

The disputes about syllables are treated with too much levity, considering the many important discussions on them in various councils—

‘ The sophistical disputations about syllables and words sprang from the mundane philosophy. They originated with those, who disbelieved the peculiar doctrines of Christianity, as held by the ancient orthodox fathers. The abettors of the Arian heresy began to make it a distinguishing characteristic of their party, to glorify the Father, by or through the Son, in the Holy Ghost, intending thereby to denote, that the Son, and the Holy Ghost, were inferior to the Father, and beings of a nature different from his.

‘ One of the consequences resulting from the sinister interpretation of the Arian party, was, that this form, “which has not otherwise so much as the shew of any thing founding towards impiety,” fell into disrepute.—Being suspected of countenancing, or concealing heterodoxy, it was generally disused by the Catholics. And agreeably to the spirit of the decisions of the council of Nice, that form

was universally adopted, which comes nearest to the original of this doxology, the form of baptism, delivered by our Lord. P. 116.

We do not allow this notion of mundane philosophy. A Christian wishes to be understood as well as a heathen: and if, in receiving a sentiment from a foreigner, it should from mis-translation be conceived in terms totally repugnant to its original meaning, or to the orthodoxy of the believer, the error should certainly be rectified. Thus, in our language, the Holy Ghost is said to proceed from the Father and the Son; and every one knows the variety of disputes on every part of this sentence, in the language from which the sentence is taken. Yet though it is a mere verbal dispute, it would surely be better to rectify the phrase 'proceeding from,' because those words in the English language imply that the Holy Ghost had a beginning,—a doctrine evidently repugnant to that laid down by the church on this subject in most parts of its liturgy and articles.

We were surprised to find that our author should adopt the notion that St. Peter had lived a considerable time and was at last martyred at Rome,—an opinion for which we are inclined to think that he has no adequate authority. The grand question of the eternal generation or filiation of the Son is flurred over in a manner which we did not expect: and after having cast a censure upon the mundane philosophy of words, we cannot allow him to alter his stops, without better reasons—

"And in one Lord Jesus Christ, the only-begotten Son of God, begotten of his father before all worlds, God of God, light of light, very God of very God, begotten, not made, being of one substance with the father\*: By whom all things were made." P. 262.

We might mention some other things: but we approve so much of the manner in which the whole in general is executed, that we wish rather to leave the correction of the errors to a future edition, than to a notification of them now, which might disparage the work. It cannot be doubted that every member of the church would wish to see the origin of its prayers and creeds well explained, by which he can enter better into the spirit of them: and from a full conviction of the improvements which the liturgy has received at various times, he will not be too tenacious of old forms, nor hesitate to join with our author in his opinion that it is susceptible of still farther improvement.

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\* I have after the word *Father*, presumed to place a colon, instead of a comma. *Father* here is sometimes uttered, improperly as I think, with what Mr. Walker calls the rising inflexion, and thus the words *by whom*, immediately following, which in reality refer to the Son, appear to be spoken of the Father.

*A General View of the Agriculture of the County of Kent; with Observations on the Means of its Improvement. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement, from the original Report transmitted to the Board, with additional Remarks of several respectable Country Gentlemen and Farmers. By John Boys, of Bevisbanger, Farmer. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Robinsons. 1796.*

**W**HEN the numerous facts that have been discovered on the subject of agriculture, shall have been well arranged, and the advantages of different modes of cultivation accurately compared and ascertained, we may probably look forward to something like a regular system of husbandry. That the surveys of particular districts, by able and experienced farmers, is a probable means of accomplishing these objects, few, we suppose, will be inclined to dispute, however they may differ in respect to the manner in which they should be executed.

The pretensions and capability of Mr. Boys for the proper performance of the important task that he has here undertaken, are founded on the following circumstances—

‘Neither pains nor expence have been spared to procure information; and the result is faithfully detailed. Having been brought up under a father who had the reputation of being a good practical farmer, and having been all my life engaged in the cultivation of different soils, and in grazing, I presume to think myself qualified to form opinions on the various systems of husbandry; but when I recommend any practice, my readers may be assured that I do so, not from theory only, but from my own experience.’ p. xvi.

The plan which is here pursued is exactly the same as that which we have given in our review of the survey of Lancashire \*. In its execution, Mr. Boys generally displays an intimate acquaintance with the business of the farmer, and marks the utility of the different processes of husbandry on different soils, with judgment and perspicuity.

It is a circumstance of considerable importance in the practice of husbandry, to be well acquainted with the nature of the soils which are to be cultivated. To this object, Mr. Boys seems to have paid more attention than is usual in the common routine of farming. An example from east Kent, where the soils principally consist of chalk, loam, strong cledge, hazel mould, stiff clay, and, in some small tracts, flints, gravel, and sand, will fully explain the manner in which this has been attempted.

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XIX. p. 405.

' The chalk-soils are of various depths; from three to six or seven inches of loose, chalky mould, on a rock chalk bottom, and are mostly found on the tops and sides of the ridges of this district. At some places there is a little mixture of small flints, and at others, of black light mould, provincially called black hover. This last, in an unimproved state, is the worst land in this district; and the whole of these chalky soils are much neglected, and consequently of little value; but where they happen to be improved, by paring and burning, destroying the charlock, with good manure afterwards, they become very good land for turnips, barley, clover, and wheat; and some parts produce tolerable crops of sainfoin.

' The loamy soil is a very dry, soft, light mould, from six to ten inches deep, on a red soft clay, which is good brick earth, and lies in a stratum of from three to seven feet deep, under which is generally a layer of chalky marl, and then the rock chalk. This soil is very good, ploughs light, and may be worked at all seasons; and produces good crops, if well managed, of all sorts of corn and grass.

' The strong cledge is a stiff tenacious earth with a small proportion of flints, and, at some places, small particles of chalk: it is from six to ten inches deep, on a hard rock chalk, and is found on the tops of the hills. When wet, it sticks like birdlime; and when thoroughly dry, the clods are so hard as not to be broken with the heaviest roll. It is very difficult to work, except when it is between wet and dry. This land, when well managed, and the seasons are favourable for the work, produces good crops of wheat, clover, and oats; but when unkindly seasons happen, and dry summers succeed, it is very unproductive.

' The hazel mould is a light soil on a clay bottom, more or less mixed with flints and sand. It is dry, and forms very kindly land for barley and wheat upon clover lays. Beans are sometimes blighted on this sort of land, as is wheat also on bean or pea-stubble, but more particularly the latter; for which reason wheat is very seldom sown after peas.

' The stiff clay lies on the tops of the highest hills. This soil is generally wet which arises only from the rains in winter; for the springs are above 300 feet deep on the rock chalk. It has at some places a layer of a yellow coloured clay between the surface mould and the rock.

' *Flints.*—This land, or rather surface of stones, occurs only in small tracts in the vallies about Dover and Stockbury, near Maidstone. It consists of beds of flints, with hardly any mould to be seen. This is very expensive to plough; but, under good management, with plenty of manure, is very productive in wheat, barley, and beans. There is very little gravelly soil, and not much sand in this district; a little of the latter, however, is seen in the vicinity of Hythe and Eolkestone. This is very light land to work,

and excellent for turnips, barley, clover, wheat, pease, and potatoes.

The flat rich lands in the vicinity of Faversham, Sandwich, and Deal, consist of two sorts of soil; namely, rich sandy loam, with a greater or less mixture of sand; and stiff clay, some of which, in the lower parts, is rather wet. The surface of the first is seven or eight inches deep, with a subsoil, varying in depth; of strong loam, clay, or chalk. This soil is always ploughed with four horses; is very dry and kindly to work at all seasons, and no ridges or water-furrows are required. It produces great crops of wheat, beans, barley, oats, and pease, and sometimes canary and radish.

The stiff wet clay is that which has a strong clay bottom, or any substance that holds water. It lies low, is subject to land-springs, and of close texture, so as not to admit a quick filtration of water.

This, when properly drained, and kept cleaned from weeds, and otherwise well managed in favourable seasons, is excellent land, and produces good crops of wheat, beans, and canary; but is generally very expensive to keep in good order.' p. 13.

On the subjects of minerals, waters, and state of property, the author has offered nothing from his own observation. The materials which furnish these different heads, are chiefly drawn from *Hasted's Kent*.

Though there may be some truth in the following remarks, as things are conducted at present,—we cannot think that it ought to be assumed as a general axiom, that proper encouragement is not the best stimulus to industry and usefulness, in any class of men.

'Some writers on this subject' (*cottagers*) 'have taken considerable pains to shew, it would be a great advantage for every cottager to have two or three acres of land, that they might each keep a cow and two or three hogs, and raise plenty of potatoes: but gentlemen who recommend this, in their humanity to the individuals who are to be benefitted, lose sight of what would be the mischievous effects to the community, by the loss of their labour. I will venture with great confidence to predict, that if every farming cottager, or, in other words, every farmer's labourer in the kingdom, could be so accommodated, a famine would inevitably be the consequence in a short space of time; for my experience has taught me to observe, that few men will labour hard any farther than necessity compels them to do so; and it is clear, that any cottager who has two or three acres of land, keeps a cow, and two or three hogs, and grows plenty of potatoes, is not much necessitated to labour for others.' p. 30.

The determination of the point respecting the size of farms  
molt

most advantageous to the community, has been a fruitful subject of controversy, and still remains undecided. The observations of our author incline him to the side of the larger farmer.

‘I am persuaded’ (says he) ‘that the large farmers, generally speaking, make the land more productive in the gross than the smaller farmers do, because they generally make greater exertions in improving their land; and of course, large farms must have a tendency to lower the price of provisions. It is very true, that a number of small farmers on a given tract of land, will rear more poultry and eggs, and perhaps make more butter than one farmer on the same quantity of land; but the one farmer will raise more mutton, wool, beef, and pork, and grow most corn; and will employ a much greater number of labourers, than the small farmers on the same tract of land; and consequently population will be increased rather than be diminished by large farms.’ p. 32.

These arguments, though plausible, are by no means satisfactory; they do not show any reason why the small farmer should not be equally industrious, and use equal exertion in cultivating his ground, with the large one. Nor is it made clear why a greater number of labourers must be employed on a farm when held by one person, than when divided amongst many. One difference is indeed very evident, and it is favourable to the small land-holder, that in the case of the large farmer no labour is required in himself; while, on the contrary, the small farmer is constantly under the necessity of being employed. To us, however, it would seem that the truth of the question lies in the middle, and that very large as well as very small farms are disadvantageous.

On the utility of a fair commutation for tithes as an encouragement to improvements in agriculture, we are inclined to think with Mr. Boys. The farmer, by such a regulation, would be rendered more easy and independent; and, on the whole, there would probably be a saving of labour, which is always an object of importance.

In the implements of husbandry employed in this county, we meet with little novelty. The plough chiefly used in this district is the *turn-wrest*, which is probably well calculated for these soils, though it seems to be a heavy unwieldy instrument, when compared with those employed in many other counties. But the author remarks here also, that

‘A great variety of ploughs and machines for drilling every species of grain is used in this county. The best by far for drilling wheat, barley, oats, pease, tares, &c. are made by Mr. Wellard of Deal. They are drawn by two horses abreast, in a double pair of shafts; drill seven rows at a time, each seven inches apart; and are

so

so contrived as to drill any quantity required per acre. They are very simple in their construction, and not liable to get out of order. They cost 14l. 10s. each.' p. 47.

In arable cultivation, Mr. Boys appears to be a rational and temperate advocate for the fallowing system. His remarks on this subject seem the result of practical experience.

On the method of making a good fallow, Mr. Boys has given some useful directions, which we shall extract.

'All kinds of soils should be ploughed about five inches deep before Christmas; and as soon as the land is tolerably dry in March, it should be cross-ploughed about six inches deep. Stiff soils must be left rough, until meliorated by rain, and then worked fine when between wet and dry; and all light soils immediately harrowed close after the plough, in order to promote the vegetation of seedling weeds, that they may be destroyed by subsequent ploughings, which must be repeated two or three times more, at intervals, as opportunities occur, during the months of May, June, and July; every time reducing the land fine immediately after each ploughing, while the land is moist, for the purpose before mentioned, of promoting the vegetation of weeds. Particular care should be taken not to touch the land either with the plough or harrows, when it is the least wet, as that only kneads it together, and creates more work to reduce it; besides locking up many of the seeds of weeds within the hard clods, and thereby preventing vegetation; by which such seeds are reserved for mischievous effects in the following crops of corn.

'Some farmers in this county, and many in some others, never plough their fallows until they have finished their barley sowing in the spring; and then, perhaps, not again until the land is overgrown with weeds. I have sometimes seen dung carried out, and laid in heaps, for spreading on such fallows, among green thistles and other weeds above the ground.

'Fallows had better never be made at all, than be done in such a slovenly manner.' p. 60.

The *rotation of crops*, a subject of great importance to the practical farmer, is treated here at some length, and with considerable judgment. The design of the writer seems, however, to have been rather the description of the systems of cropping generally followed in the county, than the ascertaining of those that may be most advantageously employed.

The observations and reflections scattered through this section may be consulted with advantage, as they contain much necessary practical information on a point which has not yet been sufficiently attended to by the agriculturist.

Although this cannot properly be called a fruit district,  
fruit

fruit is sometimes cultivated in it, and frequently makes a profitable branch of husbandry.

On the management of cider, we meet with some observations that directly oppose practices that have been stated by Mr. Marshall as of great importance in his *Rural Economies of Herefordshire and the West of England*. They are these:—Mr. Stone, of Maidstone, a respectable cider-maker—

‘From many years experience, has found no particular advantage in watching the fermentation of cyder, in order to rack it at any exact time. He mixes all sorts of apples together, and makes excellent cyder.’ P. 115.

On hop-grounds, wastes, and draining, we have observed many judicious remarks.

The processes of paring and burning, though condemned by many, Mr. Boys considers as of the greatest importance in the cultivation and improvement of the lands in Kent.

‘Let’ (says he) ‘the land, when burnt, be perfectly cleaned from charlock and other weeds, by growing turnips until the weeds are totally eradicated by hoeing, &c.; let the turnips be fed off the land, by sheep lying on the land day and night; then sow it with barley and clover; the latter to be fed off with sheep, folding them on the land for wheat. Lastly, return the straw produced upon the land in manure mixed with clay or loam, or any other fresh earth that is near at hand, for a second Norfolk rotation, which may be repeated; or the land may be sown with sainfoin, to remain till a turf is formed fit for paring and burning again. This plan being pursued, the practice of burning the soil will not give any cause of complaint, either to landlord or tenant. Theorists exclaim, that by paring and burning, the staple of the land is reduced, and the soil is wasted; which may be somewhat true: but all this is very immaterial, if fine crops of corn can be produced where none ever grew before, and the land at the same time be improved.’ P. 137.

The subject of manures is treated in a judicious way. In forming mix-hills, or heaps of dung and sea-weed, it would probably be advantageous to interpose a thin stratum of lime between each of the layers of these substances, in order to destroy the texture of the weed, and render it a more perfect manure. This idea was suggested from observing the weed in many of these heaps very little decayed, after having remained in them for a considerable length of time.

In examining the different circumstances of rural economy, as described in this survey, the intelligent farmer will discover, in many instances, defects and improprieties. This remark is particularly applicable to buildings and fences, and in some



degree to the turnip and potatoe management, though beginning to be more general and better conducted. Hay-making is also ill performed; and the practices of draining and irrigation appear to be neither sufficiently introduced, nor conducted in the most judicious way. In breeding and rearing cattle, this district seems likewise to be much behind the midland counties.

*Travels through Germany, Switzerland, Italy, and Sicily. Translated from the German of Frederic Leopold Count Stolberg. (Concluded from Vol. XIX. p. 368.)*

THE beauties and curiosities of Naples and its vicinity long detained our intelligent traveller; and his observations present us with a variety of information, reinforced by the attractions of entertainment. At the palace of Capo di Monte, his taste for painting was gratified with the sight of some excellent pieces by Titian and other masters; but he complains of the admission of too many pictures of little merit, which were introduced merely to swell the collection; for, out of fifteen hundred, only one hundred (he affirms) are really beautiful.

The churches in the great towns of Italy are generally adorned, both by elegance of architecture, and by the charms of painting; but those of Naples do not shine in either of these respects. Even the principal church (that of St. Januarius) is said to have no pretensions to beauty, though it cannot be denied that it has some traces of magnificence.

Instead of following the author in his account of Naples, we shall pass over with him to the isle of Capri, the retreat of that execrable tyrant, Tiberius—

‘We landed at a village,’ (he says) ‘which was situated between projecting cliffs in a verdant and productive valley; to which the surrounding terrors of the rocks gave additional charms. Here, as in the island of Ischia, are shady groves and gardens; and here too the air is rendered odoriferous, by shrubs, fruits, and flowers.

‘I saw several flowers with which I was unacquainted, and found the double red *anagallis*; which is very plentiful with us, except that it is single. We ascended a steep road to the little town of Capri, in hopes of finding asses, and of this evening visiting the ruins of one of the palaces of Tiberius: but these hopes were deceitful.

‘Though late, we walked on the sea shore; and found the strand covered with multitudes of round pebbles, and very frequently among them circular pieces of white marble, polished by the waves. The rocks on the shore form arches, and projecting cliffs; one of which soon set limits to our walk. We found corals among the

flints on the strand. It being dark, we saw the glowing lava of Vesuvius; which rises immediately opposite to Capri.

'Early on the 17th' (of April, 1792) 'we began our ride up high steps, by gardens, which brought us into narrow paths, that led among blooming trees and small fields, till the country became more rude: yet only more in comparison with the pleasant places through which we had passed. We saw the barley in full ear. The higher parts through which we rode were embellished with a beautiful pyramidal *ornithogalum*, the flower of which has six white leaves, with a tender purple line in the middle.

'Large foundations remain of the palace of Tiberius; with halls, and ruins of two pillars. A hermit now lives near the chapel of Santa Maria, in a place which was once the abode of the ruler of half the world. Here we had the grandest and most enchanting sea prospect that I had ever beheld. We overlooked the whole bay of Naples, lying between the two much greater bays to which Gaeta and Salerno give their names. Beyond this is the promontory of Licosa; and farther than that the hill of Circe; which are at least five-and-twenty German miles distant from each other: but the beauty of the surrounding objects is of much greater value than their distance.

'The view of the bay of Salerno is even more enchanting than the views of the two other bays. The shores which it presents are lofty; and on each side of them are seen sixteen or seventeen ridges of mountains, one behind the other. The promontory of Massa towers in the vicinity of the island of Capri; from which it is only about half a German mile distant. Beyond the shores of the two other bays the lofty Apennines rise.

'Leaving this place, we rode to the south east part of the island; where we alighted from our asses and climbed a steep footpath, and then made as steep a descent through a cavity formed by the arching rocks, that led to a grotto, in which we met with the ruins of an ancient building. One of the palaces of Tiberius doubtless was here. This might probably be one of the places where, according to the narrative of Suetonius, he delivered himself up to the most hateful lasciviousness, among cragged rocks and caverns. The recollection of this monster associates itself with the solemn gloom of the wonders of the scene. From this rocky hall there is a prospect toward the sea. In the blue distance, on the left, lies a part of the shores of the bay of Salerno; and, to the right, the neighbouring rocks, projecting and overhanging each other. You cannot see the sky, and can only discover a part of the sea, visibly enclosed, lying deep below you, and of a dark blue colour.

'Our guides called these caverns *Grotta di Matrimon*. We are informed, by Tacitus, that Tiberius built twelve great palaces on this island. Suetonius calls one of these palaces the villa of Jupiter; from which Lipsius conjectures that the twelve great palaces were dedicated

dedicated to the twelve superior deities. According to this not improbable supposition, these ruins, to which the people have applied the word *Matrimon*, may have been a building dedicated to the mother of the gods: or the great mother: *Matri deorum, vel Matri Magnæ*: that is, Cybele.

Large remains of reservoirs, and mosaic flooring, are found on the south side of the island. People were employed there in the search of antiquities, at the expence of a principal person of Naples. Their superintendant relates that pillars and other valuable antiquities have been found, but no statues: probably, this was a winter palace of Tiberius.

'The people of this island are lively, and full of gesticulation; like those of Ischia. An old woman was raised to a kind of comic rapture at the fresh coloured cheeks of my son, and at his flaxen hair. She danced round and round him, threw her arms in the air, and, as she had no castagnets, she loudly snapped her fore finger and thumb, with quick emotion, and sang, as if half inspired or half crazy, *Quanto é bello! Sopra bello! Sotto bello! Tutto bello! O quanto bello!* How beautiful he is! Beautiful above! Beautiful below! Beautiful every where! Oh how beautiful!' Vol. ii. p. 95.

The count afterwards visited Apulia; the inhabitants of which province (he observes) appear willing to maintain the reputation of industry, enjoyed by the ancient possessors of the country. He also found them a lively people, friendly and disinterested, curious and inquisitive, credulous and superstitious. He speaks of Barletta as a town of considerable trade, well-built and pleasantly situated. On this coast, all the productions of nature and art appeared to him to be singular; but he does not mention any thing particularly remarkable among the objects which he beheld in this part of his tour.

In Calabria he saw various traces of the devastation occasioned by the earthquake of the year 1783. Before this dreadful calamity, the province contained few inhabitants, in proportion to its extent. How severely then must it have felt the loss of 32,000 persons, who are supposed to have perished on that occasion! The remaining occupants of this charming country are deprived, by royal rapacity and misgovernment, of the benefits which they may justly claim.

'The whole system of the country' (says the count) 'is strikingly bad. The countryman is obliged to pay the king heavy taxes for the oil of his press, and the raw silk which his worms produce: though he has already paid his landlord for the ground on which the olive and the mulberry tree grew. The merchant cannot afford to give him much for his oil, because he is obliged to pay a tax which is equally heavy and unjust for leave to export it. The argument that

that the foreign merchant pays this tax is absurd. Is it not evident that the foreigner will pay the cultivator the less the more he is obliged to pay the king? Heavy taxes are likewise paid for wrought silk, and for silk stuffs. Beside, it is surely evil sufficient that the natives should be obliged to yield the carrying trade to foreigners, from the want of protection against the Barbary corsairs.

‘If the peasant be the vassal of a *Barone*, he is subject to tolls at the mills and at the oil press: beside which he is obliged to pay a tax in kind, for the produce of the soil. To this we must add that the roads, unrepaired, daily become worse; and whole communities are hemmed in and cut off from intercourse, with town or country. The small circulation of money is still farther limited by the sudden abolition of monasteries.

‘Thus do the inhabitants suffer dearth in paradise. Thus depopulation increases; in a country where marriages are uncommonly fruitful, but where the dread of increasing wretchedness deters the people from marriage. And truly it requires a paradise, such as Calabria, to invite any inhabitants where such numerous afflictions oppress a people who are habitually cheerful; where the ox-driver notwithstanding plays on his bagpipe, and where the jocund youth, with songs, and springs, and bounds, leads his herd of goats among the mountains.’ Vol. ii. p. 192.

The work is unnecessarily swelled with quotations from ancient writers, and with historical details; modes of extension to which the writers of travels are too much addicted. The account of the modern town of Sciglio, for instance, is accompanied with a long extract from the *Odyssey*, concerning the rock and the fable of Scylla; and the count's approach to Sicily is preceded by the history of that island, deduced from the earliest times. An historical sketch of Messina follows; and Herodotus furnishes a useless quotation. With regard to the present state of this city, we find, that ‘it has in great part been rebuilt’ (since the earthquake), and that ‘the streets are now more spacious and handsome.’ The population is estimated at 36,000 persons; and the inhabitants ‘trade largely in the products of the island.’ Palermo carries on less commerce, but it is far more populous, than Messina.

The former importance of Syracuse has drawn, from the pen of this diffuse writer, an historical narrative sufficiently ample for a duodecimo volume. Does he think that a tedious repetition of ancient history is a necessary appendage to modern travels?

Having described the principal remains of antiquity at Catania, he mentions the effects of the successive earthquakes to which that city has been exposed by its vicinity to Mount *Ætna*. In the year 1693, it was ‘nearly reduced to a pile of ruins;’ but it is now a large and flourishing town. The curiosity

riosity of the count induced him to ascend the mountain; and, after a nocturnal progress, he and his companions approached the summit.

' We now beheld, by day light, fields of desolation around us, wildly hurled, and intermingled with dross, black ashes, snow, and vast masses of lava; which had been vomited, at different times, from the mouth of *Ætna*: on the left, the smoking crater rose. Before us lay, in the distant deep, the *Toro* and other hills; and a continued bellying bed of clouds, the darkening extremities of which the eye could not clearly distinguish, either from the mountains or the sea, till the majestic sun rose, in fire, and reduced every object to order. It was a new "dividing of the light from the darkness; and of the dry land from the gathering together of the waters." Chaos seemed to unfold itself, where no four-footed beast, no bird, interrupted the solemn silence of the formless void.

*'Wo ſie keinen Toeten begruben, und keiner erſtehn wird \*:*

MESS. cant. i.

as *Klopſtock* ſays of the ice-encircled pole.

' *Ætna* caſt his black ſhades over the grey dawn of the weſtern atmosphere; while round him ſtood his ſons, but far beneath: yet volcanic mountains all: in number ſix-and-thirty, each a *Vefuvius*. To the north, the eaſt, and the ſouth, *Sicily* lay at our feet; with its hills, and rivers, and lakes, and cities. In the low deep, the clouds, tinged with purple, were diſperſed and baniſhed from the preſence of the golden ſun: while their ſhades, flying before the weſt wind, were ſcattered over the landscape far and wide.

' After pausing, aſtoniſhed and enraptured by the ſublime ſpectacle, we began our aſcent to the ſummit of the mountain. To attain this, we had to croſs a large tract of aſhes, and lumps of dross: where extreme caution was required, to prevent falling over the rugged *ſcoria*. Nor could caution itſelf afford any certainty that an arm, or a leg, might not be broken: ſo continually did the hollow cinders turn under the foot, and fall upon it at every ſtep.

' Theſe obſtacles being overcome, we ſtill had to aſcend the ſummit; which is very ſteep, and in many places ſo ſlippery that you can with difficulty get foot-hold: though the deſcent is not ſo very ſudden as frequently to make a fall dangerous. We found ſulphurous vapours occaſionally riſing ſo powerfully, through apertures, that we were obliged ſuddenly to turn from them.

' Being frequently under the neceſſity of reſting to take breath, we were about two hours before we arrived at the top: and yet, miſled by the deſcription of ſome travellers, we actually figured to ourſelves greater difficulties than we found.

' And now we ſtood beſide the vaſt, circular, and to the eye impervious, throat of *Ætna*. The form it has-aſſumed is, that of a

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\* No dead are buried there; nor any there will riſe.

tunnel : except that the circle is not regular. Its contracting abyss is soon lost to the sight. In various places, thin clouds of smoke ascended out of small cavities, as from so many chimneys : while the mouth itself tempestuously emitted its whirlwinds of black and white clouds, in a spiral column. To go round the crater, or to remain a moment facing the wind, were things impossible. Even with the wind on your back, by which you are secured against the smoke of the grand crater, you are pained and suffocated by whiffs of sulphurous vapours ; which ascend from the backs of the summit.

‘ As in Solfatara, near Pozzuoli, so here likewise, on the top of *Ætna* and round the rim of the crater, small lumps of pure sulphur are found : which they also are round the small cavities.

‘ The circumference of the mouth, or crater, is estimated at from three to four thousand paces. Within, as far as the eye can discover, it is coated with sulphur.

‘ On the north, separated from the ancient crater by a thin wall, or crust of sulphur, there is a new mouth ; which was opened by a falling of the summit, in the month of May, in the present year. This likewise is round, tunnel formed, and impervious to the eye. Standing on its rim we saw the whole west part of the island (which, for some hours, had been concealed from us by the mountain) to its extremest point ; as far as the high *Monte di Trapani*, or *Eryx*, and the sea beyond. Our guide endeavoured to point out the *Lipari* islands, on the right : but, being less acquainted with the country than he was, I could not distinguish them from the blue clouds of the horizon.

‘ We threw stones into this crater ; which rolled like distant thunder, till they at last fell, with a loud din, into the water below. After throwing the stone, I counted eight-and-forty pulsations before I heard the dashing of the water. This experiment seems to me to strengthen the opinion of those who believe that the mouths of the volcano are open to, and communicate with, the sea.

‘ On a sudden, we heard the gulph begin to roar, with a sound like that of boiling waters, in this prodigious cauldron ; and our guide advised us immediately to depart.’ Vol. ii. p. 478.

In some parts of Sicily, there are mines of gold and silver ; but they are not worked. In a country so fertile as that island is, it is not necessary that the industry of cultivation should be diverted to mineral pursuits. It is, ultimately, more advantageous for the inhabitants of such a country to draw silver and gold, by agriculture and commerce, from other regions, than to employ their time in extracting those metals from the earth.

As traits of character and manners are among the most pleasing ingredients of works of this kind, no apology is requisite for the insertion of the following remarks—

'The Sicilians' (says the count) 'praise themselves for their open liberal character: the Neapolitans accuse them of a very opposite quality, and attribute all the praise of liberality to themselves. For my own part, I found both nations friendly, prepossessing, and capable not only of politeness but of good intention: nay more, of confidence.

'The Neapolitans to me appear to me to be the most sanguine, and joyous: the Sicilians the most serious, and ardent. Both are irritable: but each in concord with their character. The Neapolitan is impetuous, and his anger sudden: but a word unremarked sinks deeply, and sows the seed of repentment, in the heart of the Sicilian.

*'Crescit occulto velut arbor ævo.* Hor. od. xii. lib. i.

'Conceal'd an age the rooted vengeance grows. FRANCIS.

'It nourishes the sense of injury; and, dashing down the cup of vengeance, sheds its sanguinary contents. The difference of characters in different towns is very great. The people of Trapani are most accused of the passion of revenge.

'The love of liberty is common to the inhabitants of both kingdoms; and, be it told to the honour of the Neapolitans, they have constantly resisted the introducing of that dreadful and detestable tribunal, the inquisition. Sicily was first relieved from it by the present king.

'The defects of a hot climate have free play among the Sicilians, Neapolitans, and Italians, in general; from the public and private education of youth, which is neglected in a most indefensible manner. Like as, in this climate, the manifold fruits of the fertile soil are intermingled with numerous kinds of thistles of uncommon growth, so do failings and vices luxuriantly rankle, in the national character of this people; whose talents and capabilities are uncommonly great. Voluptuousness, anger, and revenge, glow in their fiery temperament with unabated heat. When not irritated, they are a well meaning people.

'To this good intention must be attributed the prepossessing and noble hospitality of the inhabitants of both kingdoms; and to this the security with which strangers live in Rome: although there are annually five hundred murders committed in that city; not as the sacrifices of rapacity, but of jealousy, sudden anger, and revenge.

'Their infant children testify violent anger; and their tears are accompanied with tokens of obstinacy, and vehemence. A part of these failings may probably be placed to the account of inherited qualities, and heat of blood: but as great a part, at least, may be justly attributed to the unreasonableness of parents, and their impetuous manner of teaching their children. Accustomed to play with stones, the boys are armed with this dangerous weapon of passion; and, if a stone be thrown at a dog, all the boys hurl at the unfor-

fortunate

minate animal ; while their elders not only encourage this bad practice by their silence, but frequently by their example. Their general treatment of animals is a proof of the rude state of their feelings.

‘ In a country so fruitful as this, idleness is native. The inhabitant of the north is obliged to supply his wants by the sweat of his brow : among which wants are a strong diet, warm clothing, much firing, and distilled liquors. The more abstemious Italians and Sicilians are lightly fed, and lightly clothed. Although their fiery wines in many places are as cheap as our table beer, yet drunkenness is with them an uncommon vice. In Italy, I saw one or two men intoxicated ; and in Sicily none. The climate is so mild that they are in need neither of a substantial nor of a roomy habitation ; and their very mechanics generally work in the streets. Shade and repose are their natural wants, and the origin of their indolence ; which, however these circumstances may plead its excuse, is still fearful in its consequences.

‘ One of these consequences is the number of beggars, who are often impudent ; and appear more so to travellers than they are in reality. The traveller too frequently forgets that beggars themselves cannot but partake of the national vivacity.

‘ The Italians and Sicilians are accused of selfishness ; nor is the accusation entirely groundless : though I have found among them men of all ranks who possessed generosity. It was no uncommon thing for the lower order of people to refuse any recompense from me, or my fellow travellers, for the trouble they had taken, or the civilities they had shewn. Neither ought a nation to be judged by people whose profession it is to live by strangers. How would those be mistaken who, judging from the selfishness of many innkeepers, and their servants, in the German part of Switzerland, should make them the characteristic standard of the German Swiss ; who are the noblest people on God's earth !

‘ In countries where nature produces much spontaneously, and much more with little labour, men ought to have been allured to an active life by the opening of new channels of industry : but here its efforts are frequently neglected by the tardiness of government ; and, what is worse, frequently opposed by the obstinacy of caution.

‘ A lively fancy, misguided by a defective religious education, becomes the nurse of credulity. Hence trifling ceremonies usurp the place of serious duties ; and the muttering of words without meaning is the substitute of love, and purity of heart. To these must be attributed depravity of manners, and frequently a want of faith.’ Vol. ii. p. 512.

When the author had returned to Naples, he was desirous of passing some weeks in rural retirement. For this purpose



he made choice of the valley of Sorento, a beautiful and romantic spot, protected by its situation from the heats of an Italian summer. From this retreat he made an excursion to the isle of Ischia; the air of which is healthy, and the fertility great. He was pleased with the friendly character and simple manners of the occupants of this delightful island; but he seems to be too sanguine in his tribute of praise, when he mentions them as 'perhaps the most deserving of affection on earth.'

In his return from Rome to the north of Italy, he passed through the Bolognese, and other territories which have lately been wrested from the hands of the pope by the French republicans. Proceeding to Venice, he treats of that city, and of the government of the nation, with little novelty. A public work of great utility, commenced by that state in the year 1751, claims a short notice.

'About twenty miles south of Venice, the republic has nearly completed an undertaking which is scarcely inferior to the greatest works of ancient Rome. A high wall, or pier, of large stones is built, on a small cape; the purpose of which is to protect the shallow waters that surround the seventy-two islands, on which the city is built, and many others that are seen scattered around, against the wild waves of the Adriatic. To resist these, the wall is constructed upon two distinct terraces of marble; each of which is nine paces broad. The smallest of these terraces, which consists of four steps, is opposed to the inner waters, which are called La Laguna. The joints of the stone, after the manner of the ancient Roman buildings, are all filled with a mixture of lime and puzzolana. This latter material is brought from Mount Vesuvius.' Vol. ii. p. 599.

Persons of rank, at Vienna, have been frequently represented as formal and haughty; but the count declares that he has in no place found so little constraint among the great, as in the imperial metropolis.

'The old and the young, who in other great cities of Germany, while they so frequently assemble in the same chamber, appear to hold themselves distant and distinct from each other, here confidentially converse together; and thus communicate a tone of variety and animation, and a charm to social intercourse which render it delightful. Not all modelled by the same rules, not equally stiff and strait laced, by which the human character is so frequently degraded, and which repetition renders so disgusting, you here meet with people of different propensities, who therefore have greater powers of entertaining. The women are lively and pleasant; and grave statesmen and rough warriors listen to them with delight. Neither is gaming, which

which in other cities is the gulph of all the affections and passions, here the only employment of society.

' Strangers are welcomed with amenity; and with an air that shews the heart and the lips are not at variance. If a stranger be introduced to certain families, he is neither obliged to yawn with the tedious glutton, nor administer to the avarice of a rapacious card party. His host, on the contrary, endeavours to sound his affections, heighten his pleasures, and receive him with that unaffected hospitality which renders his stay agreeable; and his endeavours are usually successful.' Vol. ii. p. 604.

In the last epistle, a hasty sketch is given of a journey through Bohemia to Saxony. The capitals of those two countries are briefly described; the one, as combining modern embellishments and antique magnificence, both in the Bohemian taste; the other, as the finest city in Germany.

From the view which we have exhibited of this work, our readers will perceive that it is not unworthy of their attention. It contains, indeed, a redundancy of matter; but exuberance is preferable to sterility; and, though the language of the translation is incorrect, Mr. Holcroft is certainly entitled to some praise for his spirited execution of a laborious task.

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*An Introduction to Arithmetic and Algebra.* By Thomas Manning. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Rivingtons.

THERE is not perhaps a science of greater utility than arithmetic; yet, if we go to the Exchange, and inquire of those men who are chiefly employed in the practice of figures, it is astonishing how few will be found, who have the least idea of the rationale of the art. They know nothing of the excellence of the order of the Arabic figures: they add ten or borrow ten, because they have been taught to do it at their academies: they find a fourth proportional, and act upon the result with certainty, without any examination of the doctrine of proportion. Hence these people, if taken out of the dog-trot plan by which they gain their livelihood, are, notwithstanding the immensity of their self-conceit, very little, if at all, superior to the clown, whose business is to dig and plough: and having been accustomed to contemplate their increasing wealth, they think it quite sufficient that their sons should be able to perform the same act, and conceive it dangerous for them to pursue any thing like liberal knowledge. To any one, on the contrary, who thinks a little on the nature of the human mind, and how debasing it is that a reasonable being should be employed solely in one act, like a mere machine,

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machine, this mode of thinking must appear preposterous; and he is almost tempted to cry out with a celebrated character, 'Perish commerce, perish manufactures, if they cannot be pursued without the dégradation of intellect!' We are, however, of a different opinion. Commerce and manufactures may be pursued, not only without debasing the mind, but they may leave time for improving it to a very high degree, if avarice has not gotten possession of it, and happiness is not supposed to exist only in the exorbitant accumulation of wealth.

In the work before us, the rationale of arithmetic in its first rules is explained, and in a very judicious manner. (When the writer is a little more accustomed to the practice of teaching, he may probably think it necessary to lower some part of his explanation to meaner capacities.) Thence our author, very properly, goes to algebra, and, after defining the terms, teaches the application of the four first rules in arithmetic to it. Here the beginner is generally very much hampered with the use of the negative sign; and the great difficulty is to teach him to comprehend, that *minus* into *minus* gives *plus*. This point is laboured here in the usual manner: but at the end of the proof, a doubt of the legitimacy of this method is implied by the phrase, 'if multiplication by abstract negative quantities be allowed.' The vindication of these quantities does not also seem to us very forcible in the page before this doubt. 'It may happen,' says our author, that a quantity  $c$  is to be multiplied into the quantity  $x-y$ , when it is not known whether  $x$  or  $y$  is the greatest: but in that case, without considering the difficulties, enlarged upon so well by baron Maseres, attendant on the negative sign, it is clear, that the product will be  $cx-cy$ , and in the process of the work it will be soon discovered, whether one side of the equation ought to have been  $cx-cy$  or  $cy-cx$ . The grand point is to prove, that  $x-y$  may be multiplied into such a quantity as *minus*  $c$ , and that the product will be  $cx-cy$ .<sup>a</sup> We do not see that our author has cast any additional light on this subject; and it remains in the same obscurity in which it was left by Clairaut and Maclaurin. We would recommend to him to look at Clairaut, page 73, Art. LX. Paris ed. 1749: and we doubt not that he will easily discover the error in the mode of reasoning, from supposing  $a$  and  $c$ , in the terms  $a-b$ , and  $c-d$ , to be equal to nothing: an error which runs through most of the writers we have consulted on the same subject.

Fractions, evolution, and involution, follow, and are explained fully, many parts with ingenuity and perspicuity: On equations, the next subject, there is rather too much prolixity: and the conversion of equations, from the change of positive and negative roots, is not so explained as to remove

every embarrassment from the learners. The subject of equations concludes with quadratics.

Ratios are the subject of a separate chapter, and are well explained. Combination and permutations come next, and the last chapter, on the binomial theorem; gives us every reason to believe, not only that our author is not deficient in application, but that he deserves every encouragement from his university.

*Sonnets, and other small Poems: by T. Park. Small 8vo. 6s. Boards. Sael. 1797.*

**T**HERE is a fondness for poetry, which seems rather to originate from the course of a man's reading having been directed to compositions of that sort, and perhaps from numbering authors among his acquaintance, than from any real fire of genius or originality of thought. Of this description are the poems of Mr. Park, which consist of sonnets, inscriptions, elegies, and epigrams. Some of these may barely be called pretty; some betray great marks of negligence; many are trifling; and all those which aim at humour, are very flat. But they are embellished, according to the modern custom, with engravings from Stothard and others; and the publication will make as good a figure as most of its brethren in a bookseller's shop-window.

In the following stanzas the thought is very just, and drawn to a good epigrammatic point in the last verse—

' The bard who paints from rural plains,  
Must oft himself the void supply  
Of damsels pure, and artless swains,  
Of innocence and industry.

' For sad experience shews the heart  
Of human beings much the same;  
Or polish'd by insidious art,  
Or rude as from the clod it came.

' And he who roams the village round,  
Or strays amid the harvest sere,  
Will hear, as now, too many a found  
Quiet would never wish to hear.

' The wrangling rustic's loud abuse,  
The coarse, unfeeling, witless jest;  
The threat obscene, the oath profuse,  
And all that cultur'd minds detest.

'Hence, let those sylvan poets glean,  
 Who picture life without a flaw ;—  
 Nature may form a perfect scene,  
 But Fancy must the figures draw.' P. 41.

We shall likewise give the—

'Inscription for a Table, which was formerly used as a Writing-Desk by Thomson the Poet.

'Ye, who on things of simplest kind,  
 Can stamp the mystic worth of mind ;  
 Who press the turf where Virgil trod,  
 And think it like no other sod ;  
 Or guard each leaf from Shakspeare's tree  
 With druid-like idolatry :—  
 Ye will this relic fondly view,  
 On which the sylvan scholiast drew  
 With moral sweet, and comment clear,  
 His record of the rural year ;  
 While every season's change he trac'd,  
 With Shakspeare's fancy, Virgil's taste.' P. 59.

We do not think, however, that the genius of Thomson is well characterised in the comparison of the last line: he excelled in accurate description, not in fancy ; and was far from having the correct taste and harmonious diction of Virgil, though he excelled him, and almost every other poet, in the higher beauties of moral sentiment, and the purest theopæthetic affections.

We beg leave to suggest to Mr. Park, that *balance* and *talents*, *dry beards* and *five years*, cannot by any indulgence pass for rhymes ; that *floridage* and *droopy* are not English words ; and that the following line can only be made verse of, by pronouncing *i ma ge ry*—

'So in ideal imagery bright.'

*History of the Original Constitution of Parliaments, from the Time of the Britons to the present Day. To which is added, the present State of the Representation. By T. H. B. Oldfield, Author of the History of the Boroughs. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.*

MUCH injudicious praise and censure falls, in the present days, to the lot of our constitution ; and on this subject we cannot be expected to speak without giving offence to the violent of both parties. Yet it is useful to them that facts should be fairly stated ; and on the great question of reform in

in the representation, we cannot hesitate saying, without pledging ourselves to the plans either of universal suffrage or suffrage by householding, that the present plan of representation is an alarming and dangerous innovation on the constitution. The facts are too numerous to admit on this head of any dispute. The spirit of the constitution is entirely lost in various places, where the representation is now bestowed on posts or stones, or walls, or a few detached cottages. Hence the state of the present representation is now well understood; and by means of the work before us (which, notwithstanding a few inaccuracies likely to creep in on such an extensive subject, we particularly recommend to every one interested in the present question), we may with ease determine the fate of any opposition. The votes of the house of commons must be secured; and upon the nature of these votes depends the success of any party. These votes will naturally be influenced by the persons to whom the voters owe their seats; and we have only to consider how many persons can command a decisive majority in the house of commons. These persons must be really, though not nominally, the governors of the country. If these persons should unite together against the crown, the crown itself must give way to them: but the crown carries not only a considerable number of boroughs by itself, but secures also a much greater number by the rewards and honours which it can bestow on their owners. It is possible that under the present constitution the country might exhibit the strange spectacle of the king and people being united together against a formidable body of borough-holders, and yet be unable, by any constitutional means, to disengage themselves from the faction in power.

Such was never intended by our constitution to be the case of this country. The work before us shows by what gradual means it has been brought into its present situation. All men are fond of power, and few are capable of exercising it to their own honour, or the advantage of others. The little chief of a corporation delights in his superiority. The smaller the number of his subjects, the greater is his influence; and the greater the value of a seat in parliament, the greater must be the sum pocketed by each burgess, if the number is diminished. Hence it is not surprising that wherever any opportunity has been given, the number of voters in a borough has decreased; and as stones give less trouble than men, it is not to be wondered at that the right of voting should at last attach itself to some visible marks, by which the proprietor of the land designates the qualification for electing his representatives in parliament. This is the natural course of things; and it is come to such a pass, that representation is in many

places

places a mere mockery; and the man who pretends to love the constitution of England, must be a base and servile character, if he is not shocked at such innovations and abuses.

To lay open to the public these abuses, is the intention of the work before us; and in the Introduction we have an account of our Saxon parliaments, to which members were sent by the votes of householders in each district. This position we believe to be in the main right: but the distance of time prevents us from ascertaining precisely what restrictions there might have been, with respect to householders under peculiar distinctions of age, poverty, rank, &c. The Norman conquest overthrew this simple plan of representation; but as the Normans were incorporated with the inhabitants of the country, they by degrees were glad to adopt the form of the ancient representation. Various changes took place in the mode in different reigns: the worst of all the changes has been within the two last centuries; and as an attempt has been made in parliament to bring in the ancient form of voting by householders, the author deserves well of the public, by showing that it is no new scheme of modern politics, but the old system of our ancestors. This scheme lies between two, the present system, and the plan of universal suffrage. The present is calculated for the increase of abuses; the plan of universal suffrage has never been tried. Universal suffrage labourt under the imputation of novelty; the present system is an accumulation of inveterate abuses. The advocates for the former have the advantage over those of the latter, because their system approaches nearer to the spirit of the constitution; and every dilapidated borough is now a disgrace to it.

But if the influence of certain persons, by means of boroughs, can be accounted for, how comes it to pass that the members for such a city as London should not be all considered as independent? This subject is worthy of reflection; and the general imputation of 'political apathy,' or rather 'political profligacy,' is not by any means satisfactory. The fact is, that the doctrine of influence is now better understood than ever; and it is seen completely in the transactions of the city. There are in the city three great corporations, and several smaller ones. The great ones are, the municipal government, the bank, and the India-house. The influence of these on shopkeepers must be always very considerable. The leading men in these corporations are merchants: and we need not say how much merchants have, within these few years, been indebted to the treasury. In the same manner, the smaller corporations may be brought under the same degree of influence; and, instead of exclaiming against the political apathy or profligacy of the citizens, it must strike impartial men as a wonder,

wonder, that so many should still retain their independence. It matters but little, what the form of government in any country is, if there is a purse at the command of one man, sufficient to satisfy the craving appetite of those who are not to be caught by honours.

To correct the abuses in the present system, the following plan is recommended—

‘ The number of houses in Great Britain are, according to the house-tax, twelve hundred thousand. Let these be divided into primary assemblies, of ten each, to be denominated by their ancient term of tythings; each of them electing annually their conservator of the peace, or tything-man. Let ten of these tythings form the hundred court, agreeable to ancient usage, and elect annually their constable of the hundred. Ten of these hundreds, again, should form the court of the thousand, and elect annually their elderman or magistrate; and two thousand should form the elective district to choose a representative for the parliament. This mode would establish a system of representation perfectly fair and equal, and would be effected without the least departure from the plan agreed upon by the society of the Friends of the People. It is only an organization of that plan upon the ancient practical principles of the constitution, and might be effected in the following regular progression—

1,200,000 house-keepers.  
120,000 tything-men.  
12,000 constables.  
1,200 magistrates.  
600 representatives.

‘ Should the plan for universal suffrage be adopted, the same system will be equally practicable, though on a more extensive basis.’ P. 546.

Against this plan, a real friend of the constitution can scarcely find a good reason to object. The great difficulty is the mode of introducing it; for by what argument can you persuade a man in possession of a borough, to give up his private for the public good? As we have seen some men do this, it may happen, that, by a fortunate concurrence of circumstances, the majority of borough-holders, uniting with the members of counties, and the few independent towns in the kingdom, may see the propriety of adopting such a measure, without which the constitution of England must necessarily, in a very few years, depart, as predicted by Hume, in his *Euthanasia of Monarchy*.



*A Practical View of the prevailing Religious System of professed Christians in the higher and middle Classes in this Country, contrasted with real Christianity. By William Wilberforce, Esq. M.P. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.*

THE Christian religion was first received by the poor. Not many rich, not many noble, not many learned, were called: our Saviour also has animadverted on the difficulties attendant on a rich man's profession of the gospel. We are to expect therefore, in every country, that the higher classes will not receive Christianity with the same zeal as the lower, — that they will blend with it much of their own caprice, — that they will endeavour to make it conform, as much as possible, to the prevailing fashions of the times. Hence it will be often useful to point out to those among them who may be in danger from such an example, the evil tendency of their conduct, and its manifest repugnancy to the spirit of Christianity. But at the same time that certain bad practices are censured, an author is to be particularly careful that he does not run into the other extreme, and present to his readers a form bearing but an imperfect resemblance to real Christianity. The subject therefore of the work before us we cannot but heartily commend. It comes too from a man from whose situation a correct knowledge may be expected of the manners of the higher classes: and as a member of the legislature, he is undertaking a task lying particularly within his sphere. With all these advantages in his favour, we little expected to meet from him the trite remark on the distinction between an ecclesiastic and a layman. It is not the circumstance of his being a layman which will have any effect on the sale of the work. He will be attended to because he is the representative of a great country, is a friend of the minister, is zealous for the established order of things in church and state, has been looked up to as a friend of liberty in the case of the depressed Africans, and is one of the principal leaders in that class in society which appropriates to itself a peculiar insight into, and practice of, the doctrines of Christianity.

On these accounts the task of the Reviewer becomes more difficult. The greater the prejudice runs in favour of the author, the greater must be our care to guard ourselves from partiality; and in more than one place we have seen the necessity of this caution. The members of the established church will in general also find themselves under a similar necessity to exercise their judgments. The author secures to himself their favour, by many a direct or oblique hint against their enemies the Unitarians, Socinians, Democrates, Jacobins. He speaks highly of the liturgy and the church, and thus covers his at-

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tack against its preachers for not dwelling upon or not believing those points which he deems essential to Christianity. Throughout he is the advocate for piety, devotion, good order, strict and exemplary conduct. The sarcasms of a Paine put us upon our guard against the puny efforts of infidelity: the respected member of the legislature, the advocate for the Africans, carries gradually and easily his unsuspecting readers into the alluring paths of enthusiasm.

We need not dwell much on our author's description of the manners of the great. They are the trite subjects of novels, romances, plays, essays, and sermons. We have read better descriptions, whether from the serious or the comic pen. By understanding well what real Christianity is, the deviations from it in any class of society are easily distinguished. The essentials then, in our author's opinion, are a deep insight into and practical experience of the doctrines of original sin, or a full conviction of the depravity of human nature — a firm belief that there is an evil spirit in a state of open rebellion against the Supreme Being, by whose delusions we are on every day in danger of being hurried into sin — a love to Christ, from a full conviction of the deliverance of which he has been the author to mankind — a sincere acknowledgment of the terms of a sinner's acceptance with God — the belief in, and practical experience of, the operations of the Holy Spirit.

To impress more strongly on the mind of the reader the importance of these essentials, reference is continually made to the liturgy of the church of England: and without doubt, when properly explained, such are the doctrines of the church. The great question is, has Mr. Wilberforce explained them with that sobriety which is the acknowledged merit of the church? or does he not run into language which tends in a rational mind to create an opposition to the truths of the gospel? He conceives that the clergy are lax in inculcating his doctrines on the people: — and without doubt many may not pay so great an attention to them as they deserve. But there is a great difference in the disposition of men and nations, and the peculiar manner of delivering the same sentiments. In a catholic pulpit, if Mr. Wilberforce will give himself the trouble of attending divine service in a Romish chapel in England, he will find his doctrines laid down with the peculiar emphasis, with the fire and warmth, which are usual on the continent. Such a mode of delivery would not, in general, suit an English audience: nor, if any man attentively reads his Testament, does it appear that our Saviour and his apostles were accustomed to use such a species of eloquence. Their address to the people was sober and dignified: they talk little of the depravity of human nature — of looking unto Jesus. They point out the ne-

cessity of faith and repentance : and the heads of our Saviour's sermon on the mount, given in the gospel, show that his mode of discoursing was far, very far, from countenancing our author's sentiments.

For example, let us take the doctrine of human depravity. The fact is too obvious to require much explanation. It was as apparent, we presume, in our Saviour's days. Yet he does not make this the peculiar feature of his discourse, but points out at once what the faults are from which we should guard ourselves—what are the temper and disposition which we should endeavour to form in ourselves. To what purpose is it to dwell upon this human depravity, when the heart of the individual is tainted with all the pride and leaven of a Pharisee ? Will not the apostle's doctrine tend more to humiliate the man—we have nothing that we do not receive from God, and all our gifts should be exercised to the good of our fellow creatures—than to fill his mind with the conviction of the general depravity of human nature, a truth which he acknowledges, and in which, as he is united with all mankind, he feels little difficulty in acknowledging that he is involved ? To tell him that superstitious observances are of no weight in the sight of that God who requireth the heart, is to attack him in the tender point, to come home to his feelings. Tell him, that, in puffing himself for his superior knowledge and superior piety, he is despising his brethren, and treating God's creatures with contempt, and thus attacking the Father in the persons of his children ; and there is a probability of bringing him to feel a portion of the gospel spirit. Point out to him the conduct of the publican, who did not dwell upon the depravity of human nature, but was filled with a complete sense of his own personal faults ; and you may bring him to humility.

The same may be said of our author's celebrated phrase, '*Looking unto Jesus*,' repeated in capitals in several places, with a note of admiration. The metaphor used by the apostle was, without doubt, well applied : but for what purpose it should be so distinguished in the work before us, it will not be easy to assign a reason. Our Saviour is the bright example for our conduct. We are to follow it to the utmost of our power in every instance, in his love, his rational and enlarged piety, in his prudence, wisdom, sobriety, in all the virtues of his character, which are seen in every page of the gospel. But this *looking unto Jesus* must be distinguished from the false raptures of a nun looking unto the crucifix. The Saviour may be equally loved by two persons, the one of a warm, the other of a cool temperament : and the excellence of the gospel is, that it is adapted to every disposition :—the ardour of the fiery will be restrained ; the cool

will be animated with the fire of a true devotional spirit. And here we cannot help taking notice of an error which is particularly striking with respect to one class of Christians, but runs, with respect to others also, through the whole composition. The Unitarians and Socinians are continually alluded to as deficient in some of our author's essentials, and, in general, as estranged from the grand spirit of the gospel. In this we must say that our author shows very little knowledge in the history of Christian sects. He may take his knowledge of the Unitarians from those with whom he happens to be particularly acquainted. But his censures, if they really belonged to some Unitarians only, and not to any of the members of the church of England, would not be justifiable when applied to the whole body. The Unitarians are a sect, denoted by their name as distinguished from other Christians, by rejecting the belief of the Trinity: but the doctrine of atonement, of redemption, of the evil spirit, of the operations of the holy spirit, are not necessarily rejected by any one of them; and some there are, very probably, who on these points take as enthusiastic a flight as our author. It is unjustifiable to censure a whole body for the faults, if they are faults, which may belong only to a few. The Socinians are a particular class of Unitarians: and our author has probably read very few, if any, of their writings, or he would have found many of them looking unto Jesus with the same raptures as himself: for in his peculiar character in the gospel, they looked up to him with equal affection, and adored him as their redeemer.

A trifling note in this work has perhaps excited more attention than any other part, and certainly more than it deserves. In the text, the author alludes to the fast-day having been employed by some persons in feasting. In the note, Mr. Pitt is vindicated from the charge of giving an entertainment on that day. Perhaps some newspaper might have mentioned such a circumstance: but it scarcely deserved serious confutation. The public scarcely gave it a moment's thought: and this note only serves to excite the malevolent to observe, that the confutation should have been accompanied with a farther remark from one so intimately acquainted with the motions of the minister; and he might have assured the public that Mr. Pitt had attended the service of the church in the morning and afternoon — was a due time at his private devotions — partook only of a sober repast, with one or two of his pious friends — and spent the rest of the day in religious meditation and conversation. The anxiety to defend a minister from a trifling imputation in a newspaper, and the actimony with which he speaks of Christian sectaries, deists, and infidels, have laid the author open

to

to many a severe comment, which we should not choose in this place to repeat.

Zealous as our author is to rescue his friend the minister from the sarcasm of a newspaper writer, the representatives of the French nation meet with no quarter; and they are said, 'as a body, to have withdrawn their allegiance from the majesty of heaven.' Much as we may be inclined to censure a variety of acts perpetrated by both parties on the continent in the late unhappy contest, we cannot but consider every attempt to make our enemies appear more odious, by heightening real crimes, or imputing to them what they never committed, as peculiarly unjustifiable in one who pretends to greater sanctity, and a firmer attachment to Christianity, than his neighbours. So far from having withdrawn this allegiance, the representatives of the nation itself express it in their constitutional acts, which begin in the most solemn manner, in the following words. 'Le peuple Français proclame en présence de l'Etre Suprême la déclaration suivante des droits et des devoirs de l'homme et du citoyen.' The French people proclaims, *in the presence of the Supreme Being*, the following declaration of the rights and duties of a man and a citizen.

Our author tells us that he has endeavoured to keep clear from all party spirit. We are sorry that he has not succeeded better. It is evident, from the two last paragraphs, that his mind is not duly purged from political prejudice; and we may also say, that his religious system is equally founded on a partial view of Christianity. To the serious and the sounder part of the members of the church of England, it offers dogmas which they cannot countenance; and they will lament that an author with so much zeal had not more knowledge to direct it. The higher classes, to whom the work is addressed, will not find any charms of style to secure their attention, and, being shocked at the enthusiasm prevailing in the work, will more readily excuse themselves in their corrupt practices: the evangelical teachers, as they are called, proud in the aid bestowed on them by so distinguished a member of the legislature, will applaud the work to the skies: the infidels will treat it with derision. Still it does credit to the sincerity of the author in many respects: for the truths which he would inculcate, and in which all Christians agree, are not much in fashion with the higher classes; and if he could be persuaded to correct numerous passages of his work, under the auspices of those ornaments of the bench, with whom he is doubtless acquainted, every suspicion of his want of, or we might rather say, if the language admitted it, of a superabundance of orthodoxy, being removed, it would be read with great pleasure by the members of that church to which he professes himself to be peculiarly attached.

*The Origination of the Greek Verb. An Hypothesis.* 8vo.  
1s. Ginger. 1794.

*The Greek Verb analysed. An Hypothesis. In which the Source and Structure of the Greek Language, and of Language in general, is considered.* By W. Vincent, D. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. 1795.

A Passage in Mr. Horne Tooke's *Επεα Πτεροειντα*, p. 388, (Dr. Vincent informs us) gave rise to his first treatise, which consists of neither more nor less, than the assumption of the primitive verb *εω* as the origin of all the terminations in the Greek verb, and the source of all its extensive variety.

Dr. Vincent then supposes the noun to be the root of the verb, and every verb to be the noun augmented by the Greek primitive, as nouns in our language, by the addition of *do* or *to*, become verbs. And this verb *εω* he takes to correspond to our verb, *I do*.

The doctor then conjugates this verb through some of the principal tenses in the active form, combining it with the characteristics, as they are called, of the different conjugations.

'The application of *εω* to the construction of the verb is here instanced in ten examples, which exhibit all the characteristic letters in the language; these may be called ten conjugations, or six, or four; but they are still reducible to one single form, as appears by this scheme.' P. 17.

How many conjugations a language shall have, is a question that every grammarian settles for himself upon principles of convenience. The fewer he makes, the more general are his definitions, and the more numerous his exceptions. Thus many of the French grammarians differ in the number of their conjugations.

These differences depend on custom and caprice, and are only to be considered as helps to learners, not distinctions founded on the nature of things\*.

In the active and passive voices, Dr. Vincent cuts off the second future and second indefinite, and seems willing to discard the middle voice altogether, except the future and aorist. He might have observed, concerning the future tense of this voice, that it has in fact very often a passive signification; and not unfrequently is purely transitive, as in *ὀφείλουμαι*. In his paradigm, Dr. Vincent gives the paulopostfuturum exclusively to the

\* In many cases, we fear, it will be found that a violent rage for simplicity only increases the perplexity which it designed to remove.

passive voice ; but why may not *τεθνηξω* have as good a claim to this title as *τεθνηξομαι*?

If we suppose the words *second future* and *second aorist* to denote a point of time really different from that which is signified by the other future and aorist, it must be owned that no such tenses exist. But if the grammarians intended no more by calling these forms second futures and aorists, than to say that they were modern forms softened down from the ancient, we see no great harm in retaining the terms. Let us only instruct our scholars to take them for no more than they are really worth,—as counters, not as real money.

Dr. Vincent seems to have misunderstood Dawes on the subject of the middle voice. Dawes allows the existence of the aorist, and denies the existence of the future. He asserts, in short, that there is no such word as *πιθουμαι*\*, not that *πιθουμαι* was a variation of *πεισομαι*. If occasionally two forms of the same future exist, such as *ολεσω* and *ολω*, *φενξομαι* and *φενξομαι*, they might be called, if it so pleased custom, for distinction sake, *first* and *second futures*, provided we applied these terms not to any real difference of signification in the words themselves, but to the time of their introduction into the language. Dawes speaks of both the aorists passive ; but this does not prove that he denied their common origin.

This first part is concluded by five tables, the first containing the hypothetical verb *εω*, conjugated through its moods, tenses, and voices ; the three next, the verb *γραφω* (or *γραφειω*) severally conjugated in the active, middle, and passive voices ; the fifth, the same verb conjugated through the three voices. The actually existing parts of the verb are printed in red characters.

It may be said, does this scheme give any reason for the origin of the Greek verb ? Is it any thing more, at best, than an analogy to teach learners with a little more expedition ? No. But in the course of the disquisition, Dr. Vincent starts some doctrines a little more metaphysical than we have produced ; such as that the word *ειμι* pre-eminently represents *existence*. He therefore supposes that *ειμι* (which he is rather disappointed to find active and not passive) is a contraction of *εω*, and *ημι* the root of the verb in *μι*.

In the Greek tenses which denote time past, the augment has puzzled many inquirers. Dr. Vincent says—

‘ Why may not *ε* be an undiscovered fragment of *εω*, *εον*, or *ειμι* ? Most probably of the last, and applied by the Greeks for

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\* He also denies the actual existence of *πιθω* (or *τυπω*) as an indicative future. But Dr. Vincent admits *γραφω* into his scheme.

denoting

denoting a time preterite: this, in the imperfect and indefinite, is taken simply; in the perfect is covered for distinction sake by the repetition of the first consonant; and, in the completion of the action, adds *ε* to *ε*, preterite to preterite, that is, a just pluperfect.' P. 22.

'There is reason to suspect, that some metaphysical sense lies concealed in *ον* as well as *ειμι*; and whether that may not be discovered by tracing up the relation between *εω* and *ειμι*, as *cause* and *existence*, will be matter for future enquiry.' P. 29.

In the second treatise, which is much bigger than the other the doctor pursues the subject farther—

Major rerum mihi nascitur ordo :  
Majus opus moveo.

'If the first man, at the first moment of consciousness, had the power of expression, the first sentiment of his mind would be, WHAT AM I? On these grounds I assume EXISTENCE as the primary idea. I next assume the sound expressed by the vowel E, as the simplest of articulate sounds, and as such the most suitable to express the primary idea.' P. 6.

'The sound next in simplicity to E, if not equally simple, is O, and for the same reason we assume E as the basis of existence, we shall assume O as the basis of cause.' P. 8.

With great submission, this inquiry concerning cause and existence seems to us more metaphysical than is consistent with reason and nature. It supposes that the idea of pure, simple existence, of 'being *quatenus* being,' is a first, an almost innate idea; whereas the writers on grammar generally, we believe, teach, that verbs of existence are words that originally denoted some action, but by frequent repetition have lost their emphasis. For instance, if we suppose *εω*, the root of the verb substantive to be in its primitive state the same with the Latin *eo*, there would be no difficulty in adapting the signification of the verb *go*, to every sentence where now *am*, or *be*, occurs. Many other words would perform the same office, such as, *stand*, *live*, *lie*, &c. The only difficulty which can perplex tyroes, is the apparent contradiction of terms, when such phrases are required as, *I am running*, *I am dying*, which seem harsh when they are thus expressed, *I stand running*, *I live dying*.

Kuster (or some other critic), observing how frequently the Greeks substituted the infinitive for the imperative, supplied the defect by *μεμνησο*. Le Clerc, finding in Hesiod *μεμνημενος ειναι* used imperatively, objected to this supplement, because, says he, you make tautology, if you add *μεμνησο*. Such clear notions



tions of the philosophy of grammar had the man who wrote an *Ass Critica*!

Page 20, the doctor says—‘The first person is represented by *iota*, *I*; and if *I* shall not be thought fanciful, *I* will say, *I* is the basis of the idea expressed by the word *UNITY*.’ *Nunquam aliud natura, aliud sapientia dixit*. How many persons, utterly unacquainted with heathen Greek, use *I* and *number one* in the same sense!

On the contrary, the verb *am* or *be* will readily adopt the sense of *go*, as, ‘*I am to be made a captain*.’ So the French say, ‘*He was to Rome*,’ for ‘*He took a journey to Rome*.’

If we compare the respective conjugations of *eo* and *sum*, we shall find the former agreeing much better than the latter with the Greek verb of existence. Witness the third person plural, *eunt*, εὐντι, and the participle, *euntes*, εὐντες.

We mean not definitively to point out this or any other verb, as the origin of the verb substantive. We only assert what we before said, that all verbs, however abstract may be the existence which they denote at present, must in their original have a plain meaning, derived from some sensible object.

This will more clearly appear from examining the other verbs in the Greek language, which signify *existence*. *Τυχάνω* is only an extension of *τευχω*, to *frame*, as *φυγγάνω* is of *φειγω*; *τελεθω*, of *τελλω*, to *set*, as *βαλεθω* of *βαλλω*. *Κυρω* signifies to *reach*; *πειω*, to *approach*; *φυω*, to *plant*; and *γίγνομαι*, to *be born*.

Such being our opinions, if they are true, the foundations of Dr. Vincent’s hypothesis are shaken, and consequently the superstructure must totter. We feel no pleasure in passing any censure upon the work of a learned, ingenious, and, as we are credibly informed, an amiable man.

We regret, therefore, that Dr. Vincent has wasted so much time and labour upon an inquiry which we rather think barren and unprofitable in the main. Scholars may, however, peruse many of the incidental observations with amusement or instruction. Dr. Vincent has since published a large quarto, on a subject more congenial, we believe, to his talents, the voyage of Nearchus, in which we hope and expect to find him more successful.

An Appendix, by a rev. Mr. Peter Roberts, contains the inflexions of the Welsh verbs. Those profane critics who are not disposed to think Welsh the primitive language, will scarcely be converted, when they find that *credu* is Welsh for *believe*.

*Hermes unmasked; or, the Art of Speech founded on the Association of Words and Ideas. With an Answer to Dr. Vincent's Hypothesis of the Greek Verb. By Capt. Thomas Gunter Browne. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Payne. 1795.*

*Hermes unmasked; Letters III. and IV. containing the Mysteries of Metaphysics. With an Answer to M. le President de Brosses's System of Imitative Sound. By Capt. T. G. Browne. Small 8vo. 1s. 6d. sewed. Ridgway. 1796.*

**I**T is seldom that we see military or naval men quit the sword and gun for the pen, and endeavour to instruct the mortals whom they have left alive. The present publication not only affords us an instance of this phenomenon, but an instance of one still rarer,—of a witty grammarian. The motto, however, with which he has adorned his title-page, is perfectly serious, and well worthy of regard. We shall therefore transcribe it. Mr. Browne's reference is to Hartley, Prop. 88.

‘I am also inclined to believe, that the method here proposed, of considering words and sentences as impressions, whose influence upon the mind is entirely to be determined by the associations heaped upon them in the intercourses of life; and endeavouring to determine these associations, both analytically and synthetically; will cast much light upon logical subjects, and cut off the sources of many doubts and differences.’

This hypothesis (if it may be so called) captain Browne defends with much ingenuity, and ably attacks the principles of the book against which he professes to write. Some of his arguments we have adopted in the preceding article; and another remark or two we shall subjoin to our general observations.

We have already said that capt. Browne is a wit in his grammatical inquiries. We have to add that he is also a politician. Mr. H. Tooke had set him, it is true, an example in both cases. But was not Mr. Browne misled to copy his model in its faults?

We are far from proscribing all pleasantry in works even of the most serious kind. But when that which ought to be only an accessory, becomes a principal, we cannot help resenting his usurpations. Political reflections, too, may, if they be sparingly introduced, merit the praise, or at least the pardon, of the reader. But still it ought to be remembered that they are the garnish, not the meat; that a long strain of irony becomes, like strong sauces, disgusting, if administered in large doses; and that political discussions may provoke those

to indignation, who otherwise would have reaped profit and pleasure from the book.

To the general principles of association between ideas and words, we make no objection. But we think the author has done ill to mix facts with suppositions, because facts only will instruct those who want instruction, and it was idle in him to write for others. 'The name of an osier twig can convey to our imagination an idea of the action of causing.' (p. 4.) This he afterwards explains of the preposition *with*, and the noun *with*, a willow twig. (pp. 53, 54.) This explanation being, in our opinion, just, he should have treated the subject throughout with instances equally proper, and actually existing. He might have observed of this very word *with*, that it is not only used in our translation of the Bible, but in a much more modern book, his own admired Gulliver's Travels.

There are two ways of treating on the origin of language; one by considering the nature of man, and reasoning from a few simple and primary elements;—the other, by taking some one language or more as they exist, and showing, by an induction of particulars, that such and such general principles pervade the whole system. In the former of these cases, the use of ridicule or politics was injudicious; from the latter, suppositions ought to be excluded.

Capt. Browne says judiciously, (p. 5) 'Etymologists are apt to expect, when they trace words up to their *supposed origin*, that they are to find some striking resemblance of the thing.' True. And hence proceeds, perhaps, M. de Brosset's system of imitative sound,—a system so erroneous, that it is wonderful, how a man of genius could espouse it. A few such imitative sounds exist in most languages; but they bear a very small proportion to the mass of words.

Capt. Browne quotes (p. 9) Swift's school for languages in Laputa, where one of the projects was 'to shorten discourse by leaving out verbs and participles, because in reality all things imaginable are but nouns.' Flushed with this authority, he goes on to illustrate the position, THAT ALL WORDS ARE NOUNS; even Mr. Horne Tooke, who is highly commended elsewhere, finds no quarter for having allowed the existence of the verb. Capt. Browne, in his wrath, utterly exterminates all adjectives, pronouns, verbs, participles, &c. &c.

We find no fault with the author for adopting in earnest any observation that was first made in jest by another; the common proverb is a sufficient apology. But we cannot help giving it as our opinion, that he has not been successful in his attempt to demolish the verb. The proposition, that all words were

were once nouns or names, is not quite equivalent to the proposition, that all words now are names. There is one great and obvious distinction between the ideas which we have occasion to express by words. The two grand *genera* are, 1. The objects of our senses or reflections. 2. The relations and qualities of those objects. Whether, therefore, we shall call these two *genera*, names primary and secondary, subject and predicate, substance and accident, noun and verb, or with capt. Browne, name and metaphor,—if we think by this we have made any advances in knowledge, we shall resemble the man that rode round the pinfold during a dark night, and thought he had been going forward on his journey all the while.

The author gives this instance—

‘ If the child saw his brother burning the bed, he might readily exclaim—Tom! fire! bed! The mother would be alarmed; would look round, and would understand her darling orator immediately—and he must be an obstinate fool, however much he may know of Greek and Latin, who will not allow that, in this case, the name or noun *fire* has completely performed the office of the verb.’ P. 32.

The mother would be alarmed, no doubt; but the words *Tom, fire, bed*, would not explain the case completely; for they might equally mean, *Tom is on fire in the bed*.

As a specimen of our author's style and manner, we give the following passage—

‘ Why should the wording of law instruments be so absurdly constructed, and so terribly long-winded?—I answer—Whereas it is well known, that the will of many men in writing laws, as in making speeches, is to command, and not to enlighten; to mislead, and to turn to their own wicked account the person so hearing, or so reading, the said speeches and the said writings—it has therefore been found necessary to insist on their excluding, as much as possible, from such law writings and pleadings, all expressions and marks, most liable to doubtful constructions; and accordingly all those little poems commonly called beautiful epithets, are wholly excluded:—further, it is necessary to exclude, as much as may be, all pronouns and relatives, which pronouns and relatives, when admitted, might chance to be associated in the mind of the readers, sometimes with one antecedent, and sometimes with another;—or if at any time such pronoun should intrude, it is judged expedient to check the possible bad consequence, and to repeat the name or noun, in whose stead it was so intended.—Furthermore, we observe, that notwithstanding this strict and explicit process, 'tis difficult to draw out any long instrument, which shall not be liable to

false interpretations. — Such is the extent of association between words and ideas! such is the art of speech! And be it observed, if our peers, priests, gentlemen, and other worthy persons, be not as correct in all moral and religious business, as the said lawyers are, in all matters of property, it can only be, because the people who employ them put a higher value upon the goods immediately in question in all law proceedings, than upon the matters immediately in question in religion and morality.' p. 67.

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*An Arrangement of British Plants; according to the latest Improvements of the Linnæan System. To which is prefixed, an easy Introduction to the Study of Botany. Illustrated by Copper-plates. By William Withering, M. D. F. R. S. &c. &c. (Concluded from Vol. XIX. p. 396.)*

IN proceeding with our analysis of this useful work, we find that to the *species* many additions have been made; and in these, various alterations have taken place; the latter principally (except in the *cryptogamia*) consisting of such as have been found to differ from the species described by Linnæus, either on the authority of Dr. Smith in English botany, or from the information of Mr. Afzelius, a Swedish botanist, and a pupil of Linnæus. Many new specific characters have been consequently formed, more newly translated, and others altered to accord more exactly with the species described; in which the learned author has evinced a fundamental knowledge of the principles of the science, and must have bestowed no small portion of time and labour in the investigation necessary for that purpose. In the *fungi* a great part of the specific characters have been newly formed, and those of the *agarics* are almost exclusively the author's own. We have examined and compared many of these characters, and are satisfied with their accuracy, and think ourselves authorised in asserting that they are as neat and concise as the genius of the English language will allow. This language is nevertheless ill adapted to the brevity required for this purpose; and were it consistent with the plan of the work, we should wish to see, in a future edition, the specific characters in Latin, even though it were thought necessary to give translations in the notes. The additions and alterations which we have noticed in the *species*, are the following—

DIANDRIA. *Veronica alpina saxatilis* and *humifusa* added on the authority of Mr. Dickson; *fruticulosa* of the second edition being now rejected.—*Pinguicula lusitanica*, supposed villosa, but now ascertained by Dr. Smith.—*P. alpina*, before introduced doubtfully, is now left out.—*Serapias rubra*.—*Salix monandra*.—*S. retusa*, from Scotland, Dickson.—*S. acuminata*, caprea ß Linn. and Hudson.—*S. cinerea*, caprea of Hud. and

Lightfoot,

Lightfoot, determined by Mr. Afzelius.—*S. arenaria* is now ascertained by Dr. Smith to be *fusca* of Linnæus.—*S. hermaphrodita* of the former edition is rejected.

TRIANDRIA. *Iris Xiphium*, a very doubtful native.—*Eriophorum angustifolium* and *alpinum*; the latter found in Scotland by Dickson, the former hitherto called polystachion, but determined by Dickson not to be that species.—*Cyperus nigricans*, before *Schoenus nigricans*.—*Carex stellulata*.—*C. curta*, cinerea second edition, *brizoides* Hud. *canescens* Lightf. —*C. ovalis*, *leporina* Hud.—*C. axillaris*.—*C. intermedia*, *disticha* Hud.—*C. teretiuscula*.—*C. clandestina*.—*C. filiformis*, *tomentosa* Lightf.—*C. extensa*, *flava*  $\beta$ . Hud.—*C. rigida*—*C. stricta*.—*C. paludosa*.—*C. ampullacea* is now left out.—*C. capitata* is now *dioica*  $\beta$ , *capitata* of Linnæus not being hitherto found in Britain.—*C. spicata* is now *muricata*  $\beta$ .—*C. montana*.—*C. tomentosa*.—*C. inflata*.—*C. gracilis*, now *acuta*.—*C. rostrata*, now *ampullacea*. The greater part of these additions and alterations, in the genus *Carex*, being from Dr. Goodenough's excellent paper in the Linnæan Transactions.—*Calamagrostis lanceolata*, before *arundo epigeios*.—*C. epigæis*, before *arundo calamagrostis*.—*C. arenaria*, before *arundo arenaria*.—*C. variegata*, before *phalaris arundinacea*.—*Agrostis patuistris*, before a variety of *alba*.—*A. pallida*.—*A. littoralis*.—*A. nigra*.—*A. maritima*.—*A. vulgaris*, before *capillaris*.—*A. sylvatica* and *pumila* are now given as varieties of *vulgaris*. These changes in this obscure and difficult genus are the fruits of the author's industry, and have great merit.—*Poa alpina* and  $\beta$  *vivipara*, before  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  of *pratensis*.—*P. rupestris*, from St. Vincent's rock.—*P. decumbens*, before *festuca decumbens*.—*P. glauca*, *alpina*  $\beta$  of Hudson.—*Briza maxima*, probably a rejectamentum, as we can hardly think so specious a plant could have escaped observation so long near the metropolis, if truly indigenous.—*Dactylis stricta*, Hort. Kew. before *cynosuroides*.—*Festuca tenuifolia*, before *ovina*  $\beta$ .—*F. loliacæa*, before *sluitans*  $\beta$ .—*F. amethystina* of the former edition is now made a variety of *duriuscula*.—*Bromus polymorphus*, including *mollis* and *secatinus* with the varieties of the latter.—*B. arvensis*, a doubtful species.—*Lagurus ovatus* from Guernsey, scarcely admissible as a British plant.—*Lolium arvense*, before *temulentum*  $\beta$ , doubtful.

TETRANDRIA. *Eriocaulon septangulare*, before *decangulare*.—*Galium montanum*, considered as different from *montanum* of Hudson, which is designated in this and the former edition by the name of *procumbens*.—*G. spurium*, *tricornis* of the last edition; the plant described there under the name of *sparium*, being only a var. of *aparine*.—*Exacum filiforme*, before *gentiana filiformis*; changed on the authority of Dr. Smith in

Eng.

Eng. Botany.—*Plantago loeßlingii*, now again considered as a var. of *maritima*.—*Epimedium alpinum*.—*Sagina cerasifoides*.

PENTANDRIA. *Myosotis scorpioides*, and its varieties, are now divided into two species, under the names of *palustris* and *arvensis*.—*Cynoglossum officinale*  $\beta$  is now *sylvaticum*.—*Primula veris* and *acaulis* now included under the name of *vulgaris*, and *elatior* continued as a distinct species.—*Cyclamen europæum*.—*Gentiana pulchella* from Cornwall.—*G. nivalis* from Scotland.—*G. collina*.—*Viola lutea*, before *grandiflora*, altered on the authority of Afzelius, who says, the *grandiflora* of Linnæus is a different plant, and that our species was unknown to Linnæus.—*Ribes spicatum*.—*Herniaria lenticulata* is now rejected.—*Tordylium maximum*, from Flora Oxon. we have good reason for thinking that the *habitats* given for this species, and *officinale*, are really the same, and that both ought not to have been admitted.—*Caucalis leptophylla*, inserted on the authority of Hort. Kew. but as *daucoides* is not in that work, it was probably an error copied from the first edition of Hudson; *caucalis leptophylla* of Linnæus having never, as we believe, been found in Great Britain, and the plant called by late authors *daucoides*, being undoubtedly that species of Linnæus.—*C. scandinavica*, before *scandix anthriscus*.—*Daucus maritimus* from the S. W. coast: we suspected this to be the same as the 3d var. of *carota*, though if the description of Mr. Thomson is accurate, it must be distinct: but it should be observed that he describes the umbels as being ‘flat when in seed,’ and the specific character gives ‘umbels convex when in fruit:’ one or the other must therefore be erroneous.—*Bunium flexuosum*, supposed to be our common species, and that *bulbocastanum*, though continued, is not a native.

HEXANDRIA. *Leucoium æstivum*.—*Narcissus biflorus*.—*Scilla bifolia*, from Eng. Bot.—*Juncus uliginosus*, before a viviparous variety of *articulatus*: we have often observed it along with *articulatus*, and cannot think it any other than a var. of that species.—*J. maximus*, before *sylvaticus*.—*Rumex aureus*, now removed from *maritimus*, but we doubt whether on sufficient authority.

OCTANDRIA. *Polygonum pallidum*, before *pensylvanicum*, but here said not to be that species of Linnæus.

DECANDRIA. *Pyrola uniflora*, from English Botany.—*Saxifraga aizoides*, before *autumnalis*.—*S. moschata*, before *cæspitosa*, but not that species of Linnæus.—*S. petraea*, from Wales, App.—A glaucous variety of *dianthus deltoides* from Cheddar rocks, is introduced, and the *dianthus glaucus* of the same place is changed to *D. cæsius*, on the authority of Eng. Botany.—*D. arenarius* is rejected.—*Stellaria media*, before *alsine media*.

media.—*S. glauca*, before *graminea* β.—*S. cerasoides*, from Scotland, Dickson.—*Arenaria media*, doubtful whether distinct from *marina*.—*A. juniperina*, from Lanberris, Mr. Griffith.—*Cerastium pumilum* from Fl. Lond.—*Spergula subulata*, before *laginoides*, but changed on the authority of Mr. Afzelius.

DODECANDRIA. *Euphorbia cyparissias*, a doubtful native.

ICOSANDRIA. *Cratægus monogynia* of the last edition is now made a variety of *oxyacantha*.—*Spiræa salicifolia*, a shrub common in gardens, but introduced here on apparently good authority.—*Rubus arcticus*, from the highlands of Scotland, but without any particular *habitat* or authority.—*Potentilla aurea*, supposed to be *opaca* of Hudson; but Mr. Curtis asserts, on unquestionable authority, that *P. opaca* is no other than *verna*; and whether *aurea* be distinct from the latter or not, it does not appear clearly that both have been found in Britain.—*Tormentilla officinalis*, so named after Curtis, (*T. erecta* Linn. and Hud. *Potentilla Tormentilla* last edition); nearly allied as these two genera are, whilst they are kept separate, there can be no doubt but that this plant ought to be placed in the genus *tormentilla*.

POLYANDRIA. *Papaver maritimum*; this new species, in some respects, agrees with *argemone*, in others with *hybridum*: future observations with garden cultivation must determine its pretensions; but in a dwarfish and starved state, most of the poppies may be found with a single flower.—*Zostera oceanica*, before *marina* β.—*Anemone pratensis*, from Fl. Oxon.—*Thalictrum majus*, Mr. Robson.—*Adonis æstivalis*.—*Ranunculus gramineus*, from N. Wales.—*Ranunculus ficaria*, now restored to this genus; the reptans is continued; but we have the strongest reasons for supposing it merely a variety of *flammula*.

DIDYNAMIA. *Ajuga genevensis*.—*A. chamæpithys*, before *Teucrium chamæpithys*, but removed by Dr. Smith.—*Mentha*, the species are now reduced from eleven to nine; *villosa* being made a variety of *viridis*, and *sativa* of *arvensis*: of both we are doubtful, and particularly recommend the investigation of this obscure genus to the president of the Linnæan Society.—*Lamium dissectum*, before *purpureum* β, but cultivated by Mr. Robson, and by him ascertained to be distinct.—*Galeopsis grandiflora*, before *villosa*.—*G. cannabina*, before *tetrahit* δ.—*Origanum onites* is now made a variety of *vulgare*.—*Linnaea borealis* from Scotland, a most valuable addition to the British Flora.

TETRADYNAMIA. *Menchia sativa*, before *Myagrum sativum*.—*Draba stellata*, from the Highlands, Dickson.—*Thlaspi perfoliatum*.—*T. hirtum* of the English authors is now made a variety of *campestre*, and, we think, rightly.—*Cardamine flexuosa*,



*sa*, before *parviflora*.—*Cheiranthus erysimoides* is now rejected.

MONADELPHIA. *Geranium lancastriense*, before *sanguineum* γ: the only differences in the specific characters are, '*stem upright*,' and '*stem trailing*,' which are scarcely sufficient: and though this plant when cultivated does not vary, yet as the shape and division of the leaves, and the form and disposition of the petals, are the same in both, they ought not to be separated.—*Geranium pimpinellifolium* is now made a variety of *cleutarium*, and *pusillum* is changed to *malvæfolium*.—*Malva pusilla*, before *parviflora*.—*M. verticillata* is now properly rejected, being probably a rejectamentum.

DIADELPHIA. *Fumaria intermedia* and *capnoides*, both new.—*Astragalus hypoglottis*: this plant (*arenaria* of Hudson, *danicus* of the last edition, and afterwards supposed *epiglottis* of Linnæus) is now clearly ascertained; but the reference to *Flora Danica* 614 ought to be struck out, that figure either being a different plant, or too bad a representation of ours to be quoted.—*Trifolium medium*, before *flexuosum*.—*T. maritimum*, before *stellatum*.—*T. procumbens*, before *agrarium*; this change is certainly right; but we cannot agree with the author that *T. procumbens* of Hudson and his own former editions is a variety of *filiforme*, notwithstanding its being considered as such by Linnæus; and we could give strong reasons for such an opinion, were it compatible with the limits to which we are confined.—*T. suffocatum*, now first published as an English plant.—*Medicago arabica*, before *polymorpha*.—*M. muricata*, *polymorpha* γ of Hudson, from Ray, is now made distinct.

POLYADELPHIA. *Hypericum dubium*, a new species, Dr. Smith in Eng. Bot.

SYNGENESIA. *Sonchus canadensis*, before *alpinus*, corrected in Smith's *Icones*.—*Leontodon taraxacum* is now called *L. officinale*, and the variety δ *palustre* is made a species with the name of *taraxacon*: this plant is very common, but we yet doubt of the propriety of separating it.—*Hieracium sylvaticum*, before *murorum* β.—*H. prœnanthoides*, *villosum*, and *molle*; the three last, added to the British Flora from Scotland by Dickson.—*Carduus tenuiflorus*, before *inclinans*.—*Gnaphalium margaritaceum*, before *americanum*.—*G. sylvaticum*, the true plant from Scotland; the *sylvaticum* of the former editions, and of Hudson, is now called *erectum*, these corrections being introduced on the authority of Dr. Smith in Eng. Bot.—*G. arvense*, *Filago arvensis*, Linn. doubtful whether the species called *montanum* by British authors be this, or whether both are natives.—*Erigeron alpinum*, from Scotland, Dickson.

—*Senecio*

—*Senecio tenuifolius*, *S. erucifolius* of English authors, but not of Linnæus, Afzelius.—*Solidago lapponica* from Scotland, so named on the authority of Afzelius.—*Inula cylindrica*, before *I. pulicaris*, but not that species of Linnæus, Afzelius.—*Matricaria suaveolens* is now made a variety of *chamomilla*, after Hudson.—*Calendula arvensis*, from Falmouth. The following extracts will enable our readers to judge in what manner this part of the work has been executed—

• **BER'BERIS.** *Calyx* 6-leaved : petals 6, with 2 glands to the claw : *style* none : *berry* superiour, 1-celled ; open at the end : *seeds* 2 or 3.

• **B.** Fruit-stalks forming bunches : thorns 3 together.

• *Fl. dan.* 904—*Woodv.* 234—*E. bot.* 49—*Mill.* 63—*Blackw.* 165—*Fuchs.* 543—*Trag.* 993—*Clus.* i. 120. 2—*Dod.* 750—*Lob. obs.* 599. 2—*Ger. em.* 1325—*Park.* 1559—*J. B.* i. 6. 54—*Ger.* 1144—*Lon.* i. 46. 1.

• The first leaves inversely egg-shaped, between serrated and fringed, not jointed. *Leaf-scales* terminated on each side by a hair-like tooth. *Stem-leaves* alternate, the lowermost somewhat wing-cleft, with thorny teeth ; the rest are changed into 3-forked thorns. The secondary leaves in pairs, oblong, serrated. Between the lowermost leaves and the thorns are concealed lesser leaves. Thus, when the leaves of the present year are changed into thorns, others will succeed to take place of them in the next. Is there any instance analogous to this? *Linn. sp. pl.* *Leaf-scales* solitary, 3-forked, changing into thorns. *Fl. succ.* In searching for the nectaries at the base of the petals when the flower is fully expanded, if you happen to touch the filaments, though ever so slightly, the anthers immediately approach the summit and burst with an explosion. *Bot. arr. ed.* i.—When the anthers are thoroughly ripe, if the bottom of the filament be irritated with a pin, or a straw, the stamen rises with a sudden spring and strikes the anther against the summit of the pistil, affording a remarkable instance of one of the means used to perform the important office of impregnation. Mr. Whately, from Dr. Sims. See also *Phil. Tr.* 1788. *Blouff.* yellow, sometimes streaked with orange. *Berries* red.

• *Common Barberry.* *Pipperidge-bush.* Woods and hedges. On chalk hills. About Walden, Essex. S. May. June \*.' Vol. ii. p. 350.

• **Trifolium**

\* \* The leaves are gratefully acid. The flowers are offensive to the smell when near, but at a proper distance their odour is extremely fine. The berries are so very acid that birds will not eat them, but boiled with sugar they form a most agreeable rob or jelly. They are used likewise as a dry sweetmeat and in sugar-plumbs. An infusion of the bark in white wine is purgative. The roots boiled in lye, dye wool yellow. In Poland they dye leather of a most beautiful yellow with the bark of the root. The inner bark of the same dyes  
green

‘*Trifolium suffocatum*.—Without stem or stalk: flowers nearly sitting on the root.

*Jacq. austr. 60.*

‘*Flowers* in clusters, sitting, axillary, as it were buried in the earth. *Calyx* oblong, compressed, smooth, 5-cleft, segments bent back. *Bloss.* within the tube of the calyx, colourless. *Leaves* in threes, inversely egg-shaped, smooth, somewhat toothed. *Linn. Stipulae* cloven, bristle-shaped. *Legum.* 2-seeded; not longer than the calyx. *Jacq.* Every part of the plant, except the leaves, is buried in the sand. It has been overlooked on this account, nothing but leaves being visible, nobody thought of pulling them up for examination, but on putting down a knife or a stick the whole plant may be raised, and then its flowers and fruit come into view: The clusters in some of the older plants are as large as a small nut. Woodward. First found in England by Mr. Wigg, on the driest sandy part of Yarmouth Denis, near the sea. A. June—Sept.’ Vol. iii. p. 656.

Having now given a summary view of the additions and alterations in the first 19 classes, our limits will oblige us to contract our observations on the 20th. We must nevertheless notice the judicious changes of *Osmunda crispa*, now made a *Pteris*; and *Osmunda spicant*, which in the last edition was changed to *Acrostichum*, but now on the authority of Dr. Smith to *Blechnum*. Also the following additional species; *Acrostichum alternifolium*, *polypodium arvenicum*, *oreopteris, dentatum, spinulosum* and *trifidum*; but we cannot help remarking an error in the tabular view at the beginning of *polypodium*, where the species afterwards described under the name of *arvenicum*, is called *cambricum*.

To the genus *phascum* 4 new species have been added; to *fontinalis* 1; to *splachnum* 4; to *polytrichum* 1; to *mnium* 10; to *bryum* 27; to *hypnum* 7; to *jungermannia* 2; to *anthoceros* 1; to lichen 66; and to tremella 5. The greater part of these

kind of a fine yellow, with the assistance of alum.—This shrub should never be permitted to grow in corn land, for the ears of wheat that grow near it never fill, and its influence in this respect has been known to extend as far as 3 or 4 hundred yards across a field. This very extraordinary fact merits further investigation, for, though credited in France as well as in England, Mr. Broussonet assured Dr. Smith from his own observations, that it was totally void of foundation. See F. Bot. p. 49. What then could have given rise to such an opinion, so confidently asserted, and so widely diffused? The first information I had upon the subject, was from an excellent botanist, a scrupulous observer of nature, whose accuracy could hardly be questioned, and of whose veracity I could not entertain a doubt. The year following I examined some wheat sown round a Barberry bush in this gentleman's garden, and found the greater part of the ears abortive. Knowing a very sensible farmer in whose hedge rows the Barberry was a common plant, I enquired if he had ever observed the corn near those hedges to be any how particularly affected. His reply constitutes the first part of this paragraph.

additions;

additions to the mosses and lichens have been made from the collections of Mr. Griffiths in Wales, and the acute and indefatigable Dickson in Scotland and in England. Without particularly examining every article in these genera, of which *lichen* alone now includes 216 species besides varieties, every one to whom the name of Dickson is known, will readily conclude that the improvement must be considerable. We should not, however, do the learned author justice, were we to neglect remarking, that, from the careful revision of the specific characters, many of which are new,—the improved arrangement, and judicious sub-divisions of these extensive genera, which are either entirely new or much improved,—the investigation of the numerous species is much facilitated, and the confusion which must otherwise necessarily arise from their numbers, is in great measure avoided.

Twenty new species are now added to the genus *fucus*; and the *palmaris*, *elminthoides* and *defraetus*, are removed to *ulva*, to which they properly belong. Some of these additions are from Mr. Woodward in the Linnæan Transactions, but the greater part from Mr. Stackhouse's *Nereis Britannica*\*, a most excellent work on marine plants. Of these some are entirely new species, and others such as have heretofore been considered as varieties, but are now brought forward as distinct. The arrangement of the plants in this genus is also now entirely new.

The genus *ulva* is reduced in number; *crispa*, now *tremella crispa*; *coccinea* and *confervoides*, removed to *conferva*; *capillaris*, now *fucus dasyphyllus*, and *flavescens*, a variety of *diaphana*, being rejected, and *verticillata*, a new species from Maj. Vellej, added, along with those mentioned in the last article.

To the genus *conferva* five species are now added; and both this and the preceding genus are much indebted to the communications of Mr. Stackhouse.

From *byssus* seven species are subtracted, all the powdery *byssi* being now placed in the first division of the *lichen*, on the authority of Hoffman; but we cannot help thinking that great doubts may still be entertained of the propriety of this disposition. The description of *byssus fulva*, communicated by lady Elizabeth Noel, in a state of fructification, is a very curious article. This fructification bears considerable resemblance to that of some of the fuci,—an analogy which may lead to some very interesting discoveries.

The order *fungi* is introduced by the genus *merulius*, formed by Haller, to which are added, in this edition, ten species,

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\* Vide Crit. Rev. New Arr. for December last, p. 419.

comprising

comprising the *cantharellus*, and several analogous plants, which, instead of gills, have on their under surface only wrinkles of the same substance as the rest of the *pileus*. These plants, though included among the *agarics* by all preceding British authors, ought most undoubtedly to be separated from them. Some of those arranged by Dr. W. as *merulii*, have been hitherto considered as belonging to the genus *helvella*; and whether they ought not still to be so placed, may admit of doubt. Indeed it may be disputed whether the whole of this genus might not be united to *helvella*: we suspect that we have seen the *cantharellus* discharging its seeds in the form of powder from the *rugæ* on the under surface: and if this be confirmed, it will fully answer to the generic character of *helvella*.

The genus *agaricus*, which in the last edition, notwithstanding *merulius* had been taken out of it, was increased to the astonishing number of 216 species, besides many varieties, now includes 283 species and numerous varieties, with references to the figures of Bulliard, Schæffer, Batsch, Bolton, and other authors. In this immense mass, it is impossible for us to determine whether every reference be exact,—whether species may not be taken for varieties, or varieties for species, and whether the same plant may not have been repeated: but it is evident that the author has here laboured *con amore*, and has employed all his powers to regulate this chaos, and to produce order out of confusion, in which he has so well succeeded, that we will venture to pronounce this by far the best account of the British *agarics*, independent of plates, which has ever yet appeared. He has also certainly depended more upon his own resources, and has received less assistance in this than in any other part of the work; and the great pains which he has taken, and the ability which he has displayed in facilitating the investigation of this intricate tribe, by dividing and subdividing the genus into many distinct sections under appropriate heads, will certainly extremely promote the knowledge of these plants.

We shall give one more specimen from this truly original part of the work.

- *Agaricus xerampeli' nus*. (Schæff.) Gills golden yellow, 4 in a set: pileus fine lake red, to rich orange buff, convex, bossed: stem buff and rose, tapering upwards.
- *Sowerby* 31—*Schæff.* 247—*Battar.* 4. *C. just broke forth from its wrapper.*—*Mich.* 77. 1—*Clus. hist.* 272. 273.
- GILLS fixed, bright golden yellow, just under the edge of the pileus nearly orange, very regularly disposed 4 in a set; none of them branched; fleshy, brittle, serrated at the edge with a paler cottony matter.

PILEUS

\* *Pileus* fine lake red, changing with age to a rich orange and buff, and every intermediate shade of these colours which render it strikingly beautiful; convex, centre bossed, edge turned down, 3 to 4 inches diameter, clothy to the touch. *Flesh* pale buff.

\* *Stem* solid, nearly cylindrical, but gradually tapering upwards, rich buff, shaded with fine rose red; 3 to 5 inches high,  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch diameter. *Flesh* pale, buffy, spongy, elastic.

\* The most splendid of all the agarics. It is common in Italy, and is brought to the markets for sale. The ancient Romans esteemed it one of the greatest luxuries of the table. It having been made the vehicle for poison to Claudius Cæsar, by his wife Agrippina, it has been celebrated by the satiric pen of Juvenal, and the epigrammatic muse of Martial. See Schæffer, p. 65, chiefly taken from Clus. hist. 273, where the reader will find several other curious circumstances respecting it. But I am pretty well satisfied that these authors have mistaken the species, and that the above accounts ought to be transferred to the *Ag. deliciosus*, which is still as highly esteemed in modern Italy as it was in ancient Rome. The *Ag. xerampelinus* is eatable, but it has a strong heavy earthy taste, and is not at all agreeable.

\* This plant must be very rare in this country, as it is unnoticed by any of our botanists. It was first found by my daughter in the Red Rock plantations at Edgbaston, several growing together of different ages and sizes, in a dry soil, where either a larch or a fir tree had been cut down 4 years before. A few days afterwards we found it again in company with Mr. Stackhouse, but none of our specimens were found with either curtain or ring. The specimens first gathered afforded a milky juice in greater abundance than I had ever seen in any other species, but these the next day shewed no signs of milk, neither were those gathered a few days afterwards on the same spot, at all lactescent. This first taught me that that circumstance could not be relied on as a specific distinction. It is described and figured by Clusius as being involved in a wrapper or volva, when young and about the size and shape of an egg. The curtain and its remains on the stem in form of a broad permanent ring, are also noticed by the authors referred to above, so that notwithstanding the defect of these parts in our specimens, there can be no doubt of their existence in others.

\* *Ag. casareus*. Schæffer and Bot. arr. ed. ii. Red Rock plantations, Edgbaston. 6th July, 1791; and in Sept. 1793. Fir plantations, Tettenhall, Staffordshire, amongst moss. July, 1792.

\* \* Var. 2. *Pileus* rich dark reddish brown; stem brown red. Mr. Stackhouse.

\* \* Var. 3. *Pileus* and stem golden brown. Mr. Stackhouse.

\* \* Var. 4. *Pileus* rich red purple: stem dusky gold colour.

Bolt. 14.

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\* \* Var.

- ‘ \* Var. 5. Pileus rich red brown, stem pinky.
- ‘ Schæff. 214. 215, a prolific variation.—Schæff. 219, and 254, are other varieties of this species, but I have no evidence that they have yet been found in this island.
- ‘ GILLS fixed, not crowded, strong, fleshy, brittle, serrated on the edge with a brownish colour.
- ‘ PILEUS globular, bloomy purple, clothy to the touch, 3 inches diameter. *Flesh* thick, brittle, white.
- ‘ STEM solid, but spongy, 3 inches long, 1 inch diameter, dusky gold colour, brittle, pale yellow within. BOLTON.
- ‘ Var. 6. Gills pale buff: pileus peach bloom colour, convex when young, dimpled when full grown: stem pale yellow with a pinky tinge.
- ‘ GILLS fixed, numerous, pale buff, 8 in a set.
- ‘ PILEUS regularly convex, paler and turned down at the edge, from  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to 5 inches over, hollowed a little when old.
- ‘ *Flesh* white. *Curtain* yellowish white, tough, leaving a permanent broad ring on the stem.
- ‘ STEM solid, but pithy, yellowish white or pinky, cylindrical, 3 to 5 inches high,  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch or more in diameter.
- ‘ On the stump of a fir or a larch, in the Red Rock plantation, Edgbaston; in clusters. 25th Sept. 1793.
- ‘ Maggots very soon excavate the pithy central part of the stem, forming an irregular hollow.
- ‘ The above are the most remarkable varieties of this very beautiful and splendid Agaric. Mr. Woodward has noticed that when discharging their seeds the edges of the gills have rather a fringed than a serrated appearance, Mr. Stackhouse always found the gills of a bright gold colour. *Pileus* of various tints, from reddish purple to rich brownish yellow; flat, often depressed in the centre, edge turned down; clothy. *Stem* thick, large, clothy to the feel, purple. Often found in clusters. This gentleman discovered and sent me three beautiful drawings of the plant prior to its appearance in any English publication. *Pileus* from 2 to 5 inches over, deep saffron colour, blended with purple tints, but often of a red brown and purplish. *Gills* constantly yellow, rather broad and full. *Stem* thick, from 1 to 4 inches long. Major Velley.
- ‘ *Ag. xerampelinus*. Schæff. [Fir plantations near Bath; fir woods at Clowance, Cornwall. Mr. Stackhouse.—Major Velley.—Pine grove, Ditchingham. Mr. Woodward.] Aug.’ Vol. iv. P. 214.

To the genus *boletus* 6 species are added; to *hydnum* 4; to *helvella* 3; to *auricularia* 1; to *peziza* 8; to *nidularia* 2. From *phallus* one is subtracted; the *campanulatus* removed to *lycoperdon*, to which it is more nearly allied; to *clavaria* 5 are added; to *lycoperdon* 6; to *reticularia* 5; to *sphaeria* 7; to *trichia* 5; and to *mucor* 4.

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The plates of the former edition are continued ; and several new ones are added, descriptive of such plants as have not hitherto been figured. In these, accuracy rather than elegance has been the object : but they are well engraved, and will give true ideas of the plants represented.

That a work, professing to give an account of all the known plants of the British islands, could not be completed by the most laborious researches of any one person, will be readily acknowledged. Dr. Withering therefore, as it appears, solicited and received information from botanists in various parts of the kingdom ; and this, so far from detracting from his merit as the conductor of the work, in our opinion adds greatly to it. The greater part of the names contained in the list of contributors, will be well known to our botanical readers ; and they will probably conclude with us that these persons would not have afforded their assistance, had they not, from the author's former labours, formed a high opinion of his abilities, and consequently wished to see the present edition as perfect as possible. Our readers, nevertheless, are not to consider the publication as a mere compilation from the observations of the friends and correspondents of the author ; a very considerable part, as must appear from the notices in our review, is his own ; and the ability which he has displayed in what is original, as well as the judgment he has evinced in the selection and arrangement of the offered matter, entitle him to our fullest approbation.

We have now given an account of the most material alterations and additions which have occurred to us during a careful perusal of this edition, and comparison of it with the former ; together with such observations upon them and the work in general, as appeared most necessary. It must not, however, be supposed, that we have critically examined every separate article or expression, it being impossible, consistently with the various claims we have upon us, to refer continually to the numerous authors which would be necessary for such a scrutiny. The business of a review is rather to point out the most conspicuous excellencies or defects, and to give such a general account of a work as may lead our readers to form an opinion whether it be worthy of their farther notice. Such an examination have we now given ; and we do not hesitate to recommend it as almost necessary to every student in botany, who wishes to acquire a competent knowledge of the plants of his own country : and this the rather, as the excellent Flora of Mr. Hudson is not only become very scarce and dear, but also because the numerous additions made to the British Flora, since the publication of that work, particularly in the *cryptogamia* class, as well as the various corrections from



the Linnæan Herbarium, and from the observations of many of the most experienced botanists of the present times, as far as they relate to British plants, are no-where at present to be found collected together, except in these volumes.

*Remarks on the Arabian Nights' Entertainments; in which the Origin of Sindbad's Voyages, and other Oriental Fictions, is particularly considered. By Richard Hole, LL. B. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.*

THESE Remarks were, it is observed in the Advertisement, first read at the meeting of a literary society at Exeter, with a view of amusing its members 'with a plausible, rather than a probable, account of the authorities by which Sindbad's narrative might be supported.' What commenced, however, in jest, soon grew more serious; and we now see the Arabian tales connected with geography, with history, and philosophy. Had not the author given this account of the progress of his inquiries, an attentive reader would probably have discovered it. The first parts are often ironical; and the author occasionally sneers with 'Cervantes' serious air:' in the latter parts he is more exact, more serious, and argumentative.

For many years the Arabian Tales were almost exclusively confined to the nursery; and when their authenticity was ascertained, and they were raised above the rank of infantine amusements, their improbability disgusted; and the little interest they excited in a reflecting mind, rendered their supposed influence on the sanguinary monarch more surprising than any of the adventures recited by his victim. This part of the subject the author notices with great propriety—

'How are we to reconcile those circumstances? Does human nature vary in different parts of the globe? or are we to consider the Arabians, notwithstanding what we have heard of them, as children in intellect, and ourselves arrived at the maturity of knowledge?

'These questions, I presume, may be easily answered, without detracting from the credit of either country; without impugning the literary merit of the Arabians, or our own taste and judgement.

'In the first place we are to observe, that the translation of this performance is both inelegant and defective; and no literary composition, under such disadvantages, can be reasonably expected to make a very favourable impression on the minds of people differing in customs, manners, language, and religion. What a wretched appearance would the fathers of classic poetry exhibit, if they were rendered into vulgar prose, and their most ornamental passages suppressed! Yet such is the case with respect to this performance. I have

have been told, by gentlemen conversant in oriental literature, that it abounds with poetical passages and moral reflections; but of these scarcely a vestige remains. We are of course as much unacquainted with the merits of the original as we should be in respect to the former beauty of a human body from contemplating its skeleton. An anatomist indeed may derive from that some idea of its pristine symmetry and proportion: and, from the translation I refer to, we perceive the structure of the original story, and the different incidents, its connecting bones and sinews. But, as from the anatomy we can form no judgement of the complexion, of the features, and graces that embellished, or of the vesture that decorated, the human frame; so neither from the incidents alone can we entertain any proper conception of those flights of poetry, or elegances of diction, which adorned the oriental composition, and rendered it an object of national admiration.' p. 8.

These tales interested the auditor by the fascinating charms of the most elegant and hyperbolical poetry frequently interspersed, which has been suppressed by the French translator; amused him by the descriptions of splendour, of riches, and of beauty, which in his limited sphere he could not expect to behold; and by those phænomena of nature, which he had learned from his infancy to believe as realities. Indeed, the immensity of the roc, that could soar with an elephant in his talons, may, for a moment, shock the imagination; yet, perhaps, a bird of this strength and magnitude would not exceed the eagle, which we know will carry off a lamb, more than the beast which furnished the fossil bones of Siberia does the elephant or hippopotamus. Within the tropics, nature stalks with gigantic majesty: all her operations are vast and splendid; nor is it surprising that the cool reasoner of more temperate climes should suspect as fabulous, or disbelieve as ridiculous, what his own experience could not in any degree support.

As many of the descriptions of the Arabian author might probably have been supported on a foundation firm and tenable, it was with some concern that we saw, in the earlier part of the volume, passages of a more ironical tendency. When Sindbad and his companions mistake the back of a whale for an island, a circumstance not ridiculously improbable, as many islands in the Indian Ocean lie almost level with the water, the authr gravely observes, *how can we entertain a doubt* that they mistook the whale for one of the Lackadivi islands, which stud the sea near Cape Comorin, by which he must have shaped his course to Japan? This observation, only admissible in a ludicrous work, was probably in the first sketch, and inad-

vertently left\*.—The various illustrations of many of the most fanciful, and apparently the most exaggerated descriptions, from authors of undoubted credit, and travellers of veracity, adduced in this volume, lead us to think every thing ludicrous misapplied. But as it is impossible to follow the author in his whole course of illustration, in which he displays great ingenuity, extensive reading, and considerable learning, we shall select a few passages as specimens of his attempt.

The story of the Valley of Diamonds, the Arabian author, with true Gulliverian gravity, though perhaps with serious solemnity, tells us, he 'always considered as a fable,' before he found himself there. When left in a desert island, Sindbad ties himself to the leg of a roc, by which he is carried to the valley. The roc, as already suggested, will, it is said, carry off an elephant in his claws; and this singular feat, so irreconcilable to European ideas, is supported by Marco Paulo, and father Martini, in his Chinese Atlas. The author also mentions his having seen a representation of the roc '*hawking at an elephant*,' on the cover of a Persian MS. belonging to sir J. Banks; and he farther supports the magnitude of this bird, by the comparison of a nest seen by captain Cook in an island near New Holland: and we are much mistaken if we have not seen an account of a larger one, in one of the earlier volumes of the Philosophical Transactions, from the same neighbourhood—

'However wild this narrative' (of the adventures in the Valley of Diamonds) 'may seem, it is countenanced by writers of a different cast from our author.'

'The following passage is from Epiphanius "*de duodecim lapidibus rationali sacerdotis infixis.*" Francisco Turiano interprete.—"*Hyacinthus igneo propemodum colore est: in interiori Scythiæ barbarie reperitur. Veteres porro totum Boreale clima ubi Gothi morantur, ac Dauni, Scythiam appellare consueverunt. Ibi igitur in eremo magnæ Scythiæ penitiori vallis est quæ hinc atque inde montibus lapideis veluti muris cincta, hominibus est inuia, longæque profundissima: ita ut e sublimi vertice montium tanquam ex mœnibus despectanti non liceat vallis solum intueri; sed ob loci profunditatem densæ adeo sunt tenebræ, ut chaos ibi quoddam esse videatur. A regibus qui illuc aliquando sunt profecti, quidam rei ad illa loca damnantur, qui mactatos agnos in vallem, detractâ pelle, projiciunt. Adhærescunt lapilli, sequæ ad eas carnes agglutinant. Aquæ*

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\* Since writing the above, we see in a note, in the Appendix, the author's cooler opinions. In reality, he finds reason to think that the scene of this 'misadventure' was near Borneo; and he there mentions also the coincidence of Olaus Wormius, who speaks of the Norwegian sailors sometimes anchoring on the back of a whale.

læ vero, quæ in illorum montium vertice degunt, nidorem carniū secutæ devolant, agnosque quibus lapilli adhæserunt exportant. Dum autem carnibus vescuntur, lapilli in cacumine montium remanent. At ii qui ad ea loca sunt damnati, observantes ubi carnes aquilæ depaverint, accurrunt feruntque lapillos."

' As Sindbad does not inform us in what part of the world he met with a valley of diamonds, it might, with sufficient appearance of probability, be supposed, that he had heard of this ideal one in Scythia, and alluded to it. If Scythia, however, should be thought too remote for our traveller's aerial excursion, a valley of the same kind is at our option in another part of the globe, and in the very track which the Arabians followed in their voyage to China.

' Marco Paulo says, "Ultra regnum Maabar [Malabar] per mille miliaria est regnum Murfili . . . . in quibusdam hujus regni montibus inveniuntur *adamantes*. Nam quum pluit egrediuntur homines ad rivos aquarum qui de montibus descendunt, et in arenâ multos legunt *adamantes*. Æstatis quoque tempore ascendunt montes cum magnâ difficultate propter ferventem calorem undique æstuantem, periculo etiam magno sese exponentes, propter *magnos serpentes*, qui ibi in maximâ versantur multitudine, et quærunt in vallibus montium atque aliis declivis et retrusis locis *adamantes*, et quidem fit, ut illos nonnunquam magyâ reperiunt copiâ: idque in hunc modum. Morantur in montibus illis aquilæ albæ quæ memoratis vescuntur serpentibus: et homines qui per montes discunt, et sæpe ob prærupta saxa et præcipitia montium *ad convalles pervenire non possunt, projiciunt in illas frustra recentium carniū videntibus aquilis, et hæc deinde ab aquilis sublata nonnullos habent adhærentes adamantes*, quos homines hoc ingenio venantur. *Advertunt quo avis sublatam portet carnis portionem, et accurrentes abigunt aquilam, et lapillos carni adhærentes colligunt.*"

' This appears to be the same valley of which the Arabian author, as well as the Venetian traveller, had heard; and the tale does not appear to have been wholly imaginary. The kingdom of Golconda will agree with the kingdom of Murfili, as the passage is rendered by Purchas. He observes, in his abstract of these travels \*, "Murfili;

\* Vide Purchas's Pilgrims, vol. iii. p. 105. The Latin quotation is given from a collection of travels by Simon Gryneus, entitled, "Novus Orbis Regionum ac Insularum veteribus incognitarum," &c. printed at Basil, 1555. Muller likewise, who published an edition of Marco Paulo with notes in 1671, follows it verbatim: and, if we admit the *mille miliaria*, the diamond mines of Panna or Purna will suit as to distance better with the text than those of Golconda. Major Rennel, in his Memoirs of Hindustan, says, that they lie in a mountainous track of more than 100 miles square on the south-west side of the Jumna: and this track from Cape Comorin, the extremity of the Malabar coast, in a straight line, or as a bird flies (which we may suppose would have been Sindbad's mode of computation), is about 1000 miles. Purchas, however, follows the edition of Ramusio, of which he speaks highly, as being printed from a correct MS. of Marco Paulo, found after his death. (Pilgrims, vol. iii. p.

"Murfil, or Monful, is northward from Malabar 500 miles;" and, nearly at that distance, the richest mines of Golconda, according to modern accounts, lie among the rocks and mountains that intersect the country. The two travellers, however, vary but little, excepting that those serpents, which are the prey of Sindbad's roc, are devoured by the Venetian's eagles. The latter informs us, in the passage already quoted, that "men could not ascend the mountains without much fatigue and difficulty, on account of the intense heat; and were exposed to great danger by means of the huge serpents with which they abounded." Sindbad tells us, likewise, that he "travelled with his companions near high mountains, where there were serpents of a prodigious length, which they had the good fortune to escape." P. 54.

It may be observed that the epithet at the conclusion of the foregoing note is supported by the description of the Arabian, who always represents the roc as white. The story of the same bird, in the fifth voyage, is almost literally copied by, or from, an Arabian writer of the fourteenth century, transcribed by Bochart.

The narrative of the loadstone drawing the nails from the ships has always been considered as hyperbolical; yet we find it supported by authors of considerable credit. We shall premise the comprehensive account of the negroes of the Indian Ocean, mentioned in the same voyage—

'The Mohammedan traveller in the 9th century says, that, in "the sea of Andaman, (i. e. the bay of Bengal, through which Sindbad appears to have been steering his course), the people eat human flesh quite raw, their complexion is black, their hair frizzled, their countenance and eyes frightful." Modern navigators likewise represent many islands in this bay as inhabited by cannibals, particularly those which still retain the name of Andaman: and in an age, almost as distant from the Arabian traveller as his appears to have been from ours, these very islands, or those adjacent to them, were inhabited by a race no less savage and inhospitable: *Φερονται δε και αλλαι συνεχεις δεκα νησοι εν αις φασι τα σιδηρως εχοντα ηλως, πολιας κατεχεσθαι, μη ποτε της ηρακλειας λιθς περι αυτας γεννημενης και δια τωτο επιρριους ναυπηγισθαι κατεσχειν δε τας αυτας ανθρωποφαγας καλημενους Μανιρλας.* D'Anville places those islands of the Maniolæ on the eastern side of the bay of Bengal; but, if we are to compliment Ptolemy on the accuracy of his numeration, we must suppose that he meant not the Andaman islands, but the *ten* northern Nicobars, which are at no considerable distance from them.

85.) Ramusio was secretary to the Venetian state, and died in 1557. Vide "Navigationi et Viaggi da R musio." Tom. ii. p. 55. The passage, as it stands there, varies in some other respects from that in Simon Gryneus. Storks, as well as eagles, are said to inhabit the mountains "molte aquile & cicogne bianche."

‘ It is observable that the isles of Andaman are not only still inhabited by cannibals, but that these cannibals are likewise negroes. Mr. Hamilton concludes his account of the Cornicobar islands, with mentioning, that it was commonly supposed a Portuguese vessel, having a large number of Mozambique negroes on board, was wrecked on the Andamans, soon after the passage to India round the Cape of Good Hope had been discovered, and that from them their present inhabitants were descended: but, if we are to credit the Mohammedan traveller (without saying a word concerning Sindbad’s testimony, or even that of Ptolemy), they were inhabited by cannibal negroes in times of much greater antiquity. There is indeed no necessity of deriving this race of people from Africa. Lieutenant Wilford observes, that various hordes of emigrants from India were negroes; and that such a race with *curled hair* existed in that part of the globe, at an early period, may be inferred from the particularity being observable in their ancient idols. He shews that the Cutila-cesas, the old Egyptians, were distinguished by the same characteristic; and on this circumstance supports the description which Herodotus gives of that ancient people. The *Idrypxes*, the strait-haired Æthiops, appear also to have emigrated from India. The most savage race in the Philippine islands likewise, the supposed original inhabitants, are said to differ but little in colour from the inhabitants of Guinea, and are called by the Spaniards, *Negritos del Monte*.

‘ The account of vessels being wrecked by the attractive power of a magnetic rock in Ptolemy may have been merely figurative—the iron-stealers of Otaheite allegorised in the bay of Bengal. Yet it appears to have been a long-established opinion in the eastern world. In the history of the third Calendar we meet with a mountain of adamant possessing the same properties: and Aboulfouaris, the Sindbad of the Persian tales, is wrecked by means of a magnetic rock; for that I suppose, when stripped of its figures, must be intended by a mountain that resembled polished steel; and which, by virtue of a talisman, rendered every vessel that approached it stationary and immoveable.

‘ Serapion, “ an author, says Brown, of good esteem and reasonable antiquity, asserts that the mine of this stone (the magnet) is in the sea coast of India, whereto, when ships approach, there is no iron in them which flies not like a bird unto those mountains; and therefore their ships are fastened, not with iron, but wood, for otherwise they would be torn to pieces.”

‘ It is not probable that Mandeville ever saw Serapion or Ptolemy; yet he gives the same account. “ In an isle clept Crues ben schippes withouten nayles of iren or bonds, for the roches of the Ademandes: for thei ben alle fulle there aboute in that see, that it is merveye to speken of. And zif a schipp passed be tho marches and hadde outhen iren bondes or iren nayles, anon he sho:de ben perisheit.

For the Ademande of this kynde drawethe the iren to him : and so wolde it drawe to him the schipp, because of the iren : that he sholde never departen fro it, ne never go thens."

' Aloysius Cadamustus, who travelled to India in 1504, describes various kinds of vessels which traded from island to island for spice and other commodities. Some, he says, like those mentioned by Ptolemy, were framed entirely of wood, and for the same cause; "alix sunt quæ idcirco absque ferro sunt, quoniam vim magnetis pavent, nam is lapis visitur supra dictas insulas, quâ iter ipsi faciunt." p. 100.

The observations on Mandeville, which follow, are curious. His geographical accuracy is supported, it is said, by the papal authority: yet, in the very work, thus *sanctified*, the globular form of the earth, a heresy for which Galileo suffered two hundred years afterwards, is more than insinuated. This part of the subject might have been enlarged on with advantage.

The passages adduced from the *Comus* of Erycius Puteanus, show indisputably that Milton was much indebted to this author in his celebrated *Masque*; but the most curious part of the performance is tracing some of the most popular tales of Europe to the banks of the Ganges: — which tempts us to exclaim with Solomon, the justice of whose observations the mind instinctively acknowledges, and experience confirms, — "There is nothing new under the sun." To this perhaps an exception may be made in favour of the present work, which, from a subject apparently unpromising, produces such various and interesting information, such unexpected and curious coincidences. It is a work, with the perusal of which we have been highly entertained, and which will afford no common pleasure to an enlightened inquirer.

*Journal of a Tour through North Wales and Part of Shropshire; with Observations in Mineralogy, and other Branches of Natural History. By Arthur Aikin. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1797.*

**P**ERHAPS there is no class of publications more immediately subservient to the purposes of amusement than books of travels. — Very few, therefore, have met with more liberal encouragement from an indolent and illiterate age. Our modern tourists, however, it must be confessed, have sacrificed too much to this one object; and few of them have blended the useful with the entertaining. Mr. Aikin is a traveller of a different description: it is easy to see, though he has not neglected the pleasant and agreeable, that his main object is utility; and it is greatly to be regretted that we have not more works

works executed on this plan, particularly as far as regards the topography of our own country.

Mr. Aikin and his companions, Mr. Charles Kinder and Mr. Charles Rochemont Aikin, to whom the work is inscribed, set out from Shrewsbury, on the 25th of July 1796, on foot, — a mode of travelling adapted above every other to the observer of nature. In the course of his journey our author appears to have paid very particular attention to the mineralogy of the country, — a study which has hitherto been too much neglected, and in which Mr. Aikin is a proficient. — Connected with this object, he frequently notices the soil and agriculture; and, as far as his leisure permitted, he has not neglected botanical researches. On the state of manufactures he is also copious, and indeed seems to have neglected nothing that could either afford information or give pleasure to his readers. We lament that our limits will only admit of two extracts. — The one will, however, serve as a specimen of our author's powers of description, and the other of his accuracy and attention in observing whatever is curious and useful in the country through which he passed —

‘ The day being promising, we set off after breakfast to examine Cader Idris. A small lake, called Llyn-y-gader, lies about a mile and a half on the high road to Towyn, which having arrived at, we quitted the road and began our ascent up the first step of this lofty mountain. When we had surmounted the exterior ridge, we descended a little to a deep clear lake, which is kept constantly full by the numerous tributary torrents that fall down the surrounding rocks. Hence we climbed a second and still higher chain up a steep but not difficult track, over numerous fragments of rock detached from the higher parts: we now came to a second and more elevated lake, clear as glass, and overlooked by steep cliffs in such a manner as to resemble the crater of a volcano, of which a most accurate representation is to be seen in Wilson's excellent view of Cader Idris. Some travellers have mentioned the finding lava and other volcanic productions here; upon a strict examination however we were unable to discover any thing of the kind, nor did the water of the lake appear to differ in any respect from the purest rock water, though it was tried repeatedly with the most delicate chemical tests. A clear, loud, and distinct echo, repeats every shout that is made near the lake. We now began our last and most difficult ascent up the summit of Cader Idris itself, which when we had surmounted, we came to a small plain with two rocky heads of nearly equal height, one looking to the north, the other to the south: we made choice of that which appeared to us the most elevated, and seated ourselves on its highest pinnacle, to rest after a laborious ascent of three hours. We were now high above all the eminences within this vast expanse,



and as the clouds gradually cleared away, caught some grand views of the surrounding country. The huge rocks, which we before looked up to with astonishment, were now far below at our feet, and many a small lake appeared in the vallies between them. To the north, Snowdon with its dependencies shut up the scene; on the west we saw the whole curve of the bay of Cardigan, bounded at a vast distance by the Caernarvon mountains, and nearer, dashing its white breakers against the rocky coast of Merioneth. The southern horizon was bounded by Plinlimmon, and on the east the eye glanced over the lake of Bala, the two Arennig mountains, the two Arans, the long chain of the Ferwyn mountains, to the Breddin hills on the confines of Shropshire; and dimly, in the distant horizon, was beheld the Wreakin, rising alone from the plain of Salop. Having at last satisfied our curiosity, and been thoroughly chilled by the keen air of these elevated regions, we began to descend down the side opposite to that which we had come up. The first stage led us to another beautiful mountain lake, whose cold clear waters discharge their superabundance in a full stream down the side of the mountain; all these waters abound with trout, and in some is found the Gwyniad, a fish peculiar to rocky alpine lakes. Following the course of the stream, we came on the edge of the craggy cliffs that overlook Tallylyn lake; a long and difficult ascent conducted us at last on the borders of Tallylyn, where we entered the Dolgelle road.<sup>\*</sup> p. 61.

On the subject of the woollen manufactures in North Wales, Mr. Aikin observes —

‘ The different articles of manufacture are webs, flannels, stockings, wigs, gloves, and socks.

‘ Webs are distinguished by those in the trade into two sorts, I. what they call strong cloth, or high-country cloth; II. small cloth, or low-country cloth.

‘ I. Strong cloth is made in Merionethshire, and principally in the neighbourhood of Dolgelle and Machynlleth: at this latter place a manufactory on a small scale has lately been established, a circumstance only worth notice as marking the commencement of a change in preparing the wool, which will probably soon become general. Almost every little farmer makes webs, and few cottages in these parts are without a loom; all kinds of wool are used indiscriminately, and a considerable quantity of refuse from the wool-staplers and skinners is collected from all quarters for this purpose. During peace much Kentish wool used to be imported. Many farmers however employ wool of their own growth, and this produces by far the best kind of cloth. The standard width of this article is  $\frac{7}{8}$  yard; the length of a piece, or what is emphatically styled a *web*, is about 200 yards: this consists of two ends, each 100 yards, thus divided for the conveniency of carriage. The quality is necessarily of va-

rious

rious degrees. The price during the last year has been rapidly advancing, and has added to the former value of the article, 3, 4, or 5 pence per yard. In its rough state, it may at present be purchased of the manufacturer at every price between 11 and 20 pence. The market for this cloth is Shrewsbury: it was actually the market a few years ago, but is now little more than nominally so. A market however is regularly held every Thursday, in a great room belonging to the Drapers company, into which none but the members of that corporation are admitted. To this monopoly is to be ascribed the removal of the market from Shrewsbury, as persons not of the fraternity, but who pursued the same trade, intercepted the cloth in its way to the town; so that the drapers themselves, whenever trade is brisk, are obliged to *go up into the country*, (as the phrase is) and buy goods wherever they can find them; at Dolgelle, at Machynlleth, at the villages, farm-houses, cottages, or fulling-mills. In consequence of this it is now become a custom with the principal drapers to keep servants the greater part of the year at Dolgelle or its neighbourhood, who get acquainted with the persons who make cloth, assist the poorer ones probably with small sums of money to purchase wool, and, in fact, superintend the making and dressing of the goods.

‘ The following is the whole process undergone by this article before exportation. The wool is prepared by hand in the usual manner for the loom; when woven into cloth it is sent to the fulling-mill, where it undergoes the operations of scouring, bleaching, and milling; and is then fit for the market. When purchased by the drapers, it is treated in various ways; either it is merely committed to the shearmen, who raise the wool on one side with cards, which is called *rowing*; or it is sent again to the mill, where it is sometimes thickened to a surprising substance, which adds greatly to the price, on account of the loss in shrinking; or it is stretched, and thus made three or four inches wider, an operation which considerably enhances its value; or, lastly, it is converted into a frieze or papped cloth. It is then put under the packing press. Being formed into bales of different sizes, containing from 500 to 2000 yards, it is usually sent either to London or Liverpool, whence it is exported to Holland, Germany, and America. A quantity comparatively inconsiderable, is used at home for workmen’s jackets, ironing-cloths, blankets, &c.

‘ II. Small cloth is the produce of Denbighshire. It is entirely manufactured within the parish of the Glynn, a large tract of country, including Llangollen and Corwen. There is no established factory for this article. Small cloth is about  $\frac{1}{4}$  yard narrower than strong cloth; its length is the same. The best was purchased last year at about 16 or 17 pence per yard, but this was thought a most extravagant price, 14 pence having formerly been deemed its full value. This cloth is used chiefly for dying. Some quantity is indeed

deed sent off in its native or white state, but all that is dyed is; or ought to be, of this kind; the reason of which is that the coarser sort of the high country cloth abounds with long white hairs incapable of taking the dye, called *kemps*. This fabric is made of the coarser part of the very long wool that grows round Oswestry. Of this wool the finer part is converted into a sort of flannel, called Oswestry flannel, in substance between a common Welsh flannel and a web; its breadth is  $\frac{3}{4}$  yard; its value from 10 to 15 pence at Oswestry, which is the market for this article, as well as for small-cloth. There is no hall or other building at Oswestry, appropriated to the sale of woollens; but the cloths are conveyed by the venders into any garret, stable, parlour, or kitchen, that they can procure, and the purchasers hunt them out as well as they are able: the market is however confined to one or two streets. The purposes to which webs are applied abroad are various; the clothing of the slaves in the West Indies and South America creates a large demand; stockings are said to be made of them in Germany, and other parts of the continent; and the late empress of Russia at one time clothed part of her troops with them.

But flannels constitute the grand and most important of the Welsh manufactures. The texture and uses of this comfortable commodity it is unnecessary to point out. It is chiefly the produce of Montgomeryshire, but by no means confined to this county, being made in various places within a circle of about twenty miles round Welsh-Pool. There is only one manufactory of note in this line in Wales: it is at Dolobran near Pool, and is said to be a parish concern; it has been established about seven years. There are a few other infant factories at Newtown, Machynlleth, and other places, but as yet of little consequence. The adjoining county of Shropshire partakes with Wales in this capital manufacture, and being more wealthy, has in general substituted machinery to manual labour: several individuals in Shrewsbury and its neighbourhood, employ themselves successfully in this business; but by far the greatest undertaking of the kind is a factory about four or five miles from Shrewsbury, at a place called the Isle, belonging to Messrs. Cooke and Mason, and erected three years ago. The mill is situated on the neck of a horse-shoe-like winding of the Severn, whose diameter is about three hundred yards, whereas the river makes a serpentine course of nearly three miles before it arrives, from the upper part of the isthmus, at the lower: a tunnel five feet in diameter is worked through the neck, opening into the bed of the upper part of the river, and a great water wheel is placed at the other extremity: this wheel communicates motion to a vast series of machinery for spinning, fulling, and many other operations. The power that works the wheel is immense; being a solid cylinder of water, five feet in diameter, with a fall more than seventeen times greater than that of the Severn, which is itself a rapid river. Various

Thus were the apparent difficulties, and numerous the unforeseen accidents, which combined to baffle the design, arising from floods, and a bed of loose sand lying in the direction of the tunnel; all these, however, have been at length overcome by the perseverance and great mechanical skill of Mr. Mason; and the success of the undertaking bids fair to be as complete, as in its execution it was arduous.

‘As yet by far the greater part of the thousands of pieces of flannel which are annually sold at Pool, is the produce of manual labour; but the use of machines increases, and will speedily become general. Formerly the Welsh bestowed no pains in sorting the wool; a fleece was broken into two parts, never into more than three: they have now however learnt the economy of a little more trouble, and can make distinctions of sorts to the number of seven or eight: the consequence is a great variation in the texture of flannels, and some have been sold as low as sixpence, while others have been disposed of at four shillings per yard. Coarse goods are at present very scarce, and extravagantly dear, none being to be had under 11 or 12 pence per yard. The market at Pool is once a fortnight, on Monday. Each manufacturer used to bring hither his own goods, but of late a set of middle men has sprung up called Welsh drapers, a sort of jobbers or forestallers, who go about the country to the different cottages, and buy all the flannel that they can lay their hands upon. Their number increases, and with it the price of flannel, so that shortly the whole trade of selling at the market will be in their hands. These men generally have large lots of cloth, from eight to twenty pieces, each 100 yards on an average, out of which they will not sell a *single* piece but at an advanced price, by which means they get rid of many ordinary and damaged articles. At this market nothing is bought upon credit, every piece being paid for as soon as measured, in hard cash, or bank notes: it is the same with webs, and the rest of the Welsh woollen manufactures; whoever purchases must deposit the value in ready money, and pay the carriage home of the goods bought. No calculation has been made of the number of yards manufactured, nor indeed is it conjecturable. Very little flannel is immediately exported by the Shrewsbury drapers, who, for the most part, sell their goods to the London merchants: by these, flannels, as well as other woollens, are sent to the continent, to America, and to the West Indies: the chief demand however is inland. It is impossible to tell the number of pieces exported, except by inquiries at the ports; for though each draper may know the proportion exported of his own goods, yet no one is acquainted with what his neighbour exports.

‘Flannels, and cloths, i. e. webs, are dyed of various colours; but not in Wales, except what is consumed at home; and indeed it is seldom that a Welshman (among the lower classes) wears a coat that is not made in the principality: the usual colours are blue, drab, brown,

brown, or mixed. Considerable quantities are dyed in Shrewsbury, and there is a dye-house at Le-Botwood, near Dorrington, chiefly for this purpose. Some flannels also have been sent into Lancashire, or the borders of Yorkshire, to be dyed; but this is by no means a common practice. More webs than flannels are dyed; but of the webs, far more are sent off in the white, than in colours.

As to the fulling-mills, there is nothing peculiar in their construction; it may however be remarked that the stocks or hammers are not so heavy for flannels as webs.

Stockings, wigs, socks, gloves, and other small knit articles, are sold chiefly at Bala, being made in the town and neighbourhood; they are generally purchased by Welsh hosiers, who travel through the adjoining English counties, and supply the shops and warehouses; from the latter they are dispersed through the island. Stockings are of all colours, greys of a thousand shades, white, blue, red, &c. from six to nine shillings per dozen. p. 70.

From these extracts the reader will perceive that the style of Mr. Aikin is pure, correct, and unaffected. — He possesses a copious fund of natural knowledge, without the pedantry incidental to young writers; and the work will, we doubt not, prove an acceptable present to the lovers of natural history, and a very pleasing companion to any traveller who undertakes the whole or any part of this interesting tour.

*The Iliad of Homer. Translated by Alexander Pope, Esq. A new Edition, with additional Notes, critical and illustrative, by Gilbert Wakefield, B. A. 6 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 2s. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.*

POPE's version of Homer is rather a paraphrase than a translation; but its poetical merits are universally acknowledged. The notes, which he and his co-adjutors annexed to it, are sometimes trifling, but are frequently useful; and the work may be read with pleasure by the scholar, and with improvement and instruction by the unlearned.

Though this is a copious work, our review of it will necessarily be short, as it is only our business to take a survey of the additions made by the editor. The notes subjoined to the translator's preface, and to the essay on Homer, are not of sufficient importance to delay our progress to the more immediate accompaniments of the poem.

Mr. Wakefield is not content with acting as a mere critic; but is desirous of displaying his poetical talents in the version of particular passages. He affects, however, to undervalue his attempts in this way, by saying, that, when he gives 'a  
6 literal

'Literal copy of the original in equal compass,' he does not offer it 'as a proper and complete version by any means, but as the only method of notifying to the English reader the deviations, the omissions, the amplifications, the additions, and the embellishments of our poet.'

For these lines of Pope—

'Whose limbs unbury'd, on the naked shore,  
Devouring dogs and hungry vultures tore,'

our editor proposes the following couplet—

'Whose limbs, defenceless, and neglected, lay,  
To ev'ry dog, and ev'ry fowl, a prey.'

He prefers *every* in this case, as a word which points out the 'utterly abandoned and defenceless state' of the bodies of the 'fallen chiefs, secure from no animals, however small, feeble, and irresolute.' This alteration is more emphatical, as well as more consonant with the terms of the original—

κρηγεσσι, διανοισι τε πασι.

The greater part of the additional notes to the first book consist of comparisons of other versions with that of Pope. In this survey, praise is frequently bestowed on the attempts of Travers; and even Ogilby, of whom Pope has spoken very contemptuously, is sometimes quoted with approbation.

The new annotations to the second book also abound with quotations from the works of various translators of Homer; and the beauties as well as the faults of Pope are properly noticed. The poet appears to have borrowed many expressions and phrases from the old versions, of which he made more use than his admirers would perhaps wish to know.

With respect to the disputed phrase, *εἰς ὅτ' ἐν γῇ*, which Pope has rendered

'And oh! that still he bore a brother's name!'

Book iii. ver. 238.

the editor is of opinion that the sense may be represented thus—

'My brother once, if I may use that name!'

This is nearer to the original, than the words of Pope are.

A line inserted by the poet (ver. 288), is praised as a noble addition, which compensates a thousand imperfections. This is the passage—

'Our ears refute the censure of our eyes.'

It certainly is not unpoetical; but it does not merit the hyperbolic praise which it here receives.

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Is

In the fourth book (ver. 550), Mr. Wakefield proposes the following correction—

‘ Short was his date ! he falls by Ajax *there*,  
Nor lives to recompense his parents’ care.’

But the real difference of sense is inconsiderable, between this alteration and the words of Pope—

‘ Short was his date ! by dreadful Ajax slain,  
He falls, and renders all their cares in vain !’

and the termination of the former of the proposed lines may be pronounced awkward and vulgar. If Pope had thus written, he would have been severely censured by the editor, who is generally as warm in his expressions of disgust, as he is in his effusions of panegyric.

He, with greater propriety, recommends *fondness vain*, for *cares in vain*, the preposition in this instance being ungrammatically introduced.

The phrase, ‘he try’d the fourth,’ (book v. ver. 531) is stigmatised as *nonsense*: but this censure is too harsh. There is merely an *ellipsis* of the word *time*; an omission which is indeed inelegant, but which corresponds with the original; for Homer, in this place, uses *το τεταρτον*, without expressing the noun with which that numerical adjective agrees.

Referring to the substitution of *field*’s for *field is*, the editor observes, that the ‘absorption of the verb substantive is always low and clumsy;’ but we would hint to him, that it is not so inexcusable as his substitution (in words to which custom has not extended the practice) of *t* for the termination *ed*; a barbarous pseudography, which his notes frequently exhibit; as *helped* for *helped*, *pierd* for *pierced*, &c.

We are pleased with a note which applauds this verse (book vi. ver. 196)—

‘ Lov’d for that valour which preserves mankind.’

• The original says only, *lovely fortitude*. Nothing can exceed the felicity of this line, in my opinion; characteristic of true heroism.

The epithet *thronging* is justly reprehended in the following passage—

‘ The *thronging* troops obscure the dusky fields.’

Book vii. ver. 69.

• The epithet *thronging* conveys an idea of *progression*, whereas the troops were sitting down.’

In the speech of Jupiter to Juno and Minerva (book viii.), are these lines—

‘ Soon

‘ Soon was your battle o’er : proud Troy retir’d  
Before your face, and in your wrath expir’d.’

Mr. Wakefield affirms, that ‘ there is not a vestige of Homer here.’ But a comparison with the original will prove the contrary.

In an attempt to approximate a couplet in the tenth book (verses 267, 268.) to the strict sense of Homer, the editor is not unsuccessful—

‘ Alone, though Wisdom’s self the breast inspire,  
Slow is our wit, and languid is our fire.’

For want of attention, a line which occurs in the next book (ver. 973) is represented as an interpolation—

‘ Th’ event of things the Gods alone can view.’

But it does not fall under that description; for it answers to these words of the Greek poet—*πῶς τ’ αὖ εἰ ταδε εἴρη;*

The animation which a critic of taste feels when he is examining a beautiful work, frequently appears in the effusions of our annotator. Having altered a couplet (book xiii.), he exclaims—‘ What reader, whose nerves vibrate to the thrilling impulse of divine poesy, would wish the glorious enthusiasm of Pope, with all its deviations, to be exchanged for the cold fidelity of his uninspired editor.’

The efforts of Mr. Wakefield are exerted, with a spirited rather than a *cold fidelity*, in the passage which follows (book xv. ver. 596, &c.)—

‘ What? if our fleet shall fall by Hector’s hand,  
Hope ye on foot to reach your native land?  
Hear ye not Hector call his hosts of Troy  
To bring their fire-brands, and our ships destroy?  
He bids his heroes to the fight advance,  
Not the gay pleasures of the peaceful dance.’

Speaking of a *whole passage* which, he thinks, is *divinely executed* (book xviii.) he yet proposes the improvement of a couplet belonging to it. Why should he endeavour, except for the purpose of greater fidelity (which, in this place, he does not attempt), to improve that which he considers as supremely excellent?

In the twenty-first book (ver. 121, &c.) four lines which are entitled to praise, are offered as substitutes—

‘ E’en me resistless Death will make his prey,  
At early dawn, at twilight, or mid-day.  
Some lance shall pierce me, or some leather’d dart,  
‘Twang’d from the fatal bow, transfix my heart.’



The idea of 'doubling as they roll' (book xxiij. ver. 411) is attributed, not without reason, to misconception.

'The words *πῦλα πύρροις*, in the original, are in connexion with the substantive *πλημυ*, and not with the words *αἶνον ἰκεῖσθαι*. Homer, in short, means no more than what Horace very elegantly expresses in his first ode: *metaque fervidis evitata rotis*; the whole force of which sentence resides in the participle.'

In the opinion of some critics, the last line of the Iliad is weakened by the terminating verse of the couplet which Pope has substituted for it.

'Such honours Ilium to her hero paid;  
And peaceful slept the mighty Hector's shade.'

The additional thought, however, and the expressions of the translator, appear to us to be very poetical; and we agree with the editor, by whom it is said that this is 'a grand couplet, and a noble conclusion of a poem, durable with the language and literature of Britain!'

From our survey of these labours of Mr. Wakefield, we deem ourselves authorized to pronounce, that some of his notes are ill-founded, but that many of them display cultivation, taste, and spirit.

*A Treatise on Nervous Diseases; in which are introduced some Observations on the Structure and Functions of the Nervous System; and such an Investigation of the Symptoms and Causes of these Diseases as may lead to a rational and successful Method of Cure. By Sayer Walker, M. D. &c. &c. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.*

WHY the present tract is dignified with the title of 'A Treatise on Nervous Diseases,' we are at a loss to determine, as its contents by no means justify any claim to such a designation. The author, so far from having considered the nature of nervous disorders, has not even treated distinctly of any one of the various complaints comprehended under that very extensive class. To us, indeed, his views seem to have been directed to a different object,—the explanation of the particular or leading symptoms that characterise affections of the nervous kind. This seems evident from the following passage—

'If it had been the author's design to treat systematically of those diseases, which are classed under Spasmi and Debilitates by Sauvages, or under Neuroses by Dr. Cullen, he might have availed himself of the mode of arrangement adopted by these celebrated nosologists :  
but.

'but as it was not his design to treat particularly and distinctly of hysteria, hypochondriasis, or dyspepsia; of apoplexy, paralysis, or epilepsy; but of symptoms which are more nearly or more remotely connected with each of them; so, observing that these symptoms occur in patients, who have never been visited by a distinct paroxysm of either of these diseases, it became necessary to give a general history of them, in the manner in which they most usually occur, and without any regard to a particular nosological arrangement.' P. xi.

The rest of the writer's plan is so well and so fully described by himself in the Preface, that we may insert it in his own words—

'After some remarks on the structure and functions of the nervous system, a large detail is given of sensations described by the patient, or symptoms which have occurred to the notice of the practitioner. These are arranged under the different functions which are affected by them; and the morbid state of the circulating, respiratory, and other actions of the system, as influenced by these diseases, is pointed out. The subjects most liable to the influence of these complaints, from some peculiarity of temperament, are described; and in connexion with this, some of the causes, which operate more immediately or more remotely in the production of the diseases, are enumerated.

'In treating of the method of cure, the attention is first directed to the general circumstances under which the disease appears, or with which it may be more immediately connected; and afterwards the more particular mode of obviating urgent symptoms is pointed out, and such an attention to regimen and diet is recommended, as may conspire, with the use of proper medicines, gradually to conduct the patient to the enjoyment of health and vigour.' P. xii.

Dr. Walker sets out, in his investigation of the causes of these disorders, with a cursory examination of the structure and functions of those organs which are supposed to form the principal seat of *nervous* affections. In his remarks, we do not, however, perceive any thing that can much benefit the medical inquirer. The doctor has done little more than travel over the old ground, and collect such facts and observations from the writings of those who have preceded him in the same track, as suited the purpose of the present work.

In considering the symptoms of nervous diseases, the author is more successful: for though the great variety and irregularity of symptoms attending these complaints render their history a matter of considerable difficulty, he seems to have traced them with a tolerable degree of accuracy and discrimination. This will be in some degree evident, from his

account of those symptoms which present themselves where the circulating system has suffered some derangement of its functions.

‘ An intermitting pulse is not an unfrequent symptom, and I have sometimes observed that the artery loses a stroke pretty regularly after a certain number of pulsations. But, though weak, irregular, and intermitting pulsation is the more striking character of the circulating function in these patients, you will sometimes observe a full and steady pulse, rather inclining to a morbid slowness. This has usually been considered as an indication of some affection of the head, and has, sometimes, been the forerunner of the more alarming and dangerous nervous affections. It, however, may be viewed as an indication of some oppression on the system, for which, as will be seen when the cure of this disease is treated of, some particular remedies are necessary.

‘ Another symptom, dependent upon the circulating system, and which is not uncommon in these complaints, is, a palpitation of the heart. This affection, to which all persons are more or less subject on some occasions, is more frequently and more easily produced in those who are subject to other nervous symptoms. In many cases it may be considered as an idiopathic disease; but, in the present instance, it must be referred to the general irritability of the system, and particularly of the organ in question: and when it occurs only occasionally, and can be traced to some particular external circumstance, it is no sign of organic læsion, but only of temporary derangement of function.

‘ Whilst treating of the deranged functions of the circulating system, we may take notice of syncope as another symptom of nervous affection. A sudden paleness of countenance, loss of strength, and a temporary suspension or diminution of vital action, will sometimes take place after any extraordinary exercise or exertion; or, at other times, will be occasioned by some sudden surprise. These causes, indeed, will produce some hysteric affections, in such subjects, more frequently than fainting; the latter, however, is sometimes the consequence. The brain and nerves, by their influence, regulate the movements of the heart, and this organ has a reciprocal influence upon the brain and nerves: so that the hysteric passion, as it has been called, and syncope, though distinct affections, are very nearly allied, and may often stand in the relation of cause and effect.

‘ In nervous patients, the head will often prove the seat of pain and uneasiness. When we consider the near relation between the brain and nerves, we need not wonder that every part, in the vicinity of the former, should participate in the diseases we are considering. Patients are, therefore, frequently referring to their head as the seat of various unpleasant sensations; sometimes they complain

plain of that pain which is distinguished by the term head-ach: this is often affected by the least motion, and a perfect stillness is necessary to prevent an aggravation of this symptom.

‘That spasmodic affection, which has been called *clavus hystericus*, is oftentimes very troublesome. The patient feels a weight or stricture on some portion of the muscles of the cranium, as if a particular part were pressed upon; or the stricture is more general, and resembles the sensation of a cord tightly bound around the head. Sometimes, the pain is chiefly on one side of the head, which is also affected with a degree of numbness; at another time, it is in the forehead, between the eye-brows, and one or both of the eyes are affected.’ P. 63.

We shall pass over the author’s remarks on persons most liable to be affected with these diseases, as well as those respecting their termination, and the series of symptoms that distinguish them from other disorders to which they have some resemblance, as containing little that can interest the medical practitioner, either from their novelty, or the manner in which they are introduced. Nor, in tracing the causes of this class of diseases, can we discover that Dr. Walker has deviated into any untrodden path. The sources of these complaints are not exposed to the view of the practitioner in any new manner, nor with more clearness or precision than in the writings of those who have gone before him in handling the same subject. The opinions of a few authors on nervous affections are merely compressed into a narrower compass.

The sum of our knowledge respecting the proximate cause of diseases of this kind is stated in the subsequent passage —

‘A too great delicacy and sensibility of the nervous system has been frequently assigned as the most common occasion of these diseases; but, perhaps, the most general cause to which they can be ascribed, is an irregularity in the functions of the nervous system. If we take this as our genus, we may, under this, rank the several species of quick and slow action, of strong and weak action, of more or less acute sensation; each of which is connected with the different phenomena that have been mentioned. We have observed that this irregularity has been discovered in the different functions of digestion, circulation, secretion, the peristaltic motion of the intestines, and the different actions of the muscles, voluntary and involuntary; and to this we may, probably, refer all that variety of unpleasant sensations, of which the patient so frequently complains, and which so strongly characterizes these diseases.’ P. 136.

Surely after this explanation, the practitioner can be at no loss! He may say with the poet—

*Felix qui potuit rerum cognoscere causas!*

Let us now turn to the author's mode of treating those harassing disorders that originate from the causes *thus* clearly explained. By way of introduction we are here told, that—

‘ It is not in the use of any one medicine, nor of all the medicines of the same class, that any relief, much less that a total removal of the disease, can be expected. It is not merely in the use of nervines and cordials, of antispasmodics, of stimulants, or tonics, that we can hope for success; but in a judicious attention to circumstances, which occur to our notice in the study and treatment of different cases. But for want of knowing or considering this, the patient is disappointed, if success does not attend the first effort, or if a few draughts or pills do not remove every symptom, and leave him in the possession of perfect health.’ p. 142.

In the curative management of nervous complaints, the author directs the attention of the practitioner principally to two points,—a *general* plan of treatment, and the treatment of *particular symptoms*. In accomplishing the first, particular regard is to be had ‘ to the general temperament or constitution of the patient; to the occasional circumstances under which the disease has made its approach; to the state of the whole alimentary canal, and to the reduction of the irregular actions of the moving system, nearer to a steady and healthy standard.’ In the removal of particular symptoms, the advice of this physician differs very little from that of other writers.

In short, the chief circumstances in which the practice here recommended differs from that which has been generally followed, are, a somewhat more free evacuation of the bowels, a greater regard to the obviating of topical congestions, and a stricter attention to the management of the mind.

*A Summary View of the present Population of the principal Cities and Towns of France, compared with the principal Cities and Towns of Great Britain and Ireland. By an Unprejudiced Traveller. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Kearsley. 1797.*

**T**HROUGH some inadvertency or oversight in the author of this publication, it is made to consist only of an Advertisement, an Introduction, and an Appendix. Notwithstanding this want of method in point of arrangement, however, and, we may also add, the inadequacy of its title to convey a full idea of its contents, the work, in a general view, is respectable both for matter and style.

The author considers the present a fit occasion—

‘ For

‘ For exhibiting to public view a concise statement of the population of the principal cities and towns of the two empires; from which we may, in a great measure, deduce an estimate of their comparative strength, and properly meet the exaggerations and fanfaronnade of a government, which, without one fourth part of our naval power, now threatens a descent on these coasts, for the purpose of subjugating (with as much facility as they have done the degenerate and nerveless race of Lombardy) a people famed in battle, and spirited as themselves.’ p. iii.

The method taken in this comparative calculation is thus described—

‘ The cities and towns of France, and of Great Britain and Ireland, here stated, are at a medium of various computations, strictly scrutinized by the author, upon his own immediate local inquiry; their suburbs and dependencies, closely adjacent, being included:—Thus—Southwark is added to London, Gosport to Portsmouth, Leith to Edinburgh, Plymouth-dock and Stonehouse to Plymouth town; la Recouvrance is reckoned as a part of Brest; we cross the Seine to complete the population of Rouen; have joined le Pollet to Dieppe, and the scattered bastides to Marseilles.’ p. 1.

That our readers may judge for themselves, how far the author’s calculations are admissible, we extract the following portion from p. 3.

FRANCE.			G. BRITAIN AND IRELAND.		
	1st Jan. 1789.	1st July, 1796.		1st July, 1796.	
* Paris	850,000	600,000	London, with Westminster and Southwark	900,000	
Bordeaux	145,000	115,000	Dublin ( <i>Ireland</i> )	170,000	
Lyon	150,000	100,000	Bristol	86,000	
Marseille	100,000	70,000	Manchester	80,000	
Toulouse	80,000	58,000	Cork ( <i>Ireland</i> )	78,000	
Rouen	90,000	70,000	Norwich	80,000	
Nantes	78,000	50,000	Edinburgh (with Leith) <i>Scot.</i>	78,000	
Remes	60,000	42,000	Liverpool	76,000	
Strasbourg	76,000	55,000	Birmingham	65,000	
† Lille	70,000	48,000	Exeter	42,000	
Caen	50,000	40,000	Newcastle	50,000	
Metz	42,000	33,000	Coventry	34,000	
Montpellier	40,000	30,000	Glasgow (with Port Glasgow)	42,000	
Amiens	42,000	32,000	York	38,000	
Orleans	40,000	30,000	Leeds	43,000	
Valenciennes	38,000	26,000	Aberdeen, New and Old ( <i>Sc.</i> )	34,000	
Total of these 16 Towns, 1st Jan. 1789.	1,951,000	1st July, 1796, 1,397,000	Total of the above 16 Towns, 1st July, 1796	1,937,000	

\* Greatly enlarged, by extending the barriers, in 1788.

† Transient garrisons are not comprehended in the population of fortified towns; such as Lille, Metz, Landau, &c.

In

In this account, the author supposes the French revolution to have commenced on the 1st of January, 1789, though the Bastille was taken in July following. After completing the detail, he continues—

‘ The foregoing columns present to our readers a list of one hundred cities and towns of France, compared with as many cities and towns of Great Britain and Ireland: the former are computed, upon the fairest investigation, at two distinct periods, viz. at the beginning of the revolution (seven years since) and at the present day. Their number of inhabitants, in the total, stands thus :

	1st Jan. 1789.	1st July, 1796.	
100 French cities and towns	3,253,000	2,307,000	100 cities and towns of Gr. Brit. & Ireland
			3,156,000

‘ Paris has been much enlarged in its circuit, during the last eight years, by taking within its barrier, Chaillot to the west, and several villages towards the south-west and south.

‘ The calculations upon its number of inhabitants, which have from time to time been published by many literary authorities, differ in an unaccountable degree.—The marquis de Buffon reckoned them, 25 years ago, no more than 700,000. He found that the births and burials had long been at an equilibrium; that the mortuary extracts gave 24,000 persons in 1740, and in 1709 had amounted to 30,000. He adds, that both the winters of 1709 and 1740 were remarkably severe.

‘ Now, the inhabitants of Paris were certainly fewer in 1709 than in 1771, by at least one hundred thousand; of course, one of twenty must have died in 1709. An extraordinary mortality indeed! if another supposition of that celebrated naturalist be just, that, “the life of man may be estimated at 33 years.”

‘ Mons. Moreau agrees nearly with Buffon, as to the population of Paris.

‘ L’abbé D’Expilly (of whom we shall take due notice hereafter) does not allow so many; while Mercier, a writer deservedly in great credit, and still living, contends, in his *Tableau de Paris* (vol. 4 & 8.) that Paris contained near 900,000 souls in the year 1782.

‘ Some extravagant journalists, when a decrease rapidly began, in 1790, carried its number beyond one million. Certain it is, the inhabitants, in September, 1795, did not exceed 600,000, as was proved by the consumption of bread and flour, daily reported, by the municipal officers, to government. Nor is such a reduction to be wondered at, when we reflect on the bloody scenes repeatedly exhibited in the streets of Paris, and the immense draughts made, under the jacobin auspices, for the armies of the republic, which have so visibly thinned the once-thronged faubourgs of St. Marceau and St. Antoine.—We shall admit there is sometimes a vast shew

of people in the sections called La Butte des Moulins, Le Pelletier, and that of the Thuilleries, and of Brutus, as well as one or two more sections in the vicinity of the Palais Royal; but the extensive quarter of St. Germain des prés is almost a desert; and take Paris upon the whole—a woeful and most deformed caricatura of its former majesty and beauty, is its true picture.

‘The environs of Paris are not near so populous as the environs of London.—This is a fact too manifest for any doubt.’ p. 6.

The principal cities of France are next taken individually; and the author briefly recites those events which, during the ferment of the revolutionary measures, tended to affect their population and trade. Among these melancholy pictures, we find not only much interesting but also much novel matter; and, were we not induced rather to give place to such of the author’s remarks as affect a very material public question at present, we should most gladly gratify our readers with an extract or two. For those particulars, however, we must of necessity refer to the work, which, notwithstanding our aversion to the war, and the author’s disposition to encourage it by various representations that we think exceedingly disputable, is certainly both an able and entertaining performance.

Although our traveller professes to think with Mr. Burke, as to the necessity of obtaining peace by war, he differs from him most pointedly as to the predominance of jacobinical opinions, not only in Britain but in France.

‘That “in England and Scotland, of the part of the community (supposed 400,000) who have means of information, and above mental dependance, there are 80,000 pure jacobins, virtually incorporated into the cabal in France,” seems a most hyperbolic proposition. The author of the Two Letters has candidly acknowledged his fear, and fear, we know, is a very imperfect master of accompts:—let us, then, rather hope, and believe, that, (like Scrub in the comedy) he has terribly multiplied his thieves. This may be confidently averred, that, if we actually have among us 80,000 jacobins of such description, they much exceed in number what are now remaining throughout the whole republic of France. The tempestuous reign of jacobinism is there at an end, most probably for ever: it triumphed eighteen months in its full atrocity, from the decollation of Louis XVI, to that of Robespierre.—The waves of the ocean, after a dreadful storm, still swell, and long continue agitated, though the fury of the gale be spent: it is by their gradual subsiding, not a sudden and dead calm, that the labouring vessel becomes righted, and steers her course with safety. The French jacobins got a very sickening blow on the choice of a *nouveau tiers* to the legislative council, in September, 1795, and are likely



likely to receive their final *coup de grace* two months hence, by the change of another third.

‘ And however we may censure, hate, or dread, the system of politics which still keeps the ascendant in France, let us not utterly shut up our faculties to candour and justice : we shall then soon satisfy ourselves, that a majority of the people in France are no more jacobins than Mr. Burke. It would now be safer for a jacobin to declare himself such in the drawing-room at St. James’s, than in the public market place of any considerable town of the republic. Mr. Burke, against his own rule, “ judges of the generality of the opinion by the noise of the acclamation.” The French, in general, regard the jacobins as the disgrace, and pest, of society ; that have, indeed, sown seeds of the most flagitious principles in other countries, but, in their own, have carried those principles into rueful practice — have deluged France with blood, despoiled the rich patrimony bestowed on her by nature, and rendered the name of a Frenchman universally shuddered at and abhorred : government is therefore bent upon their subjugation, and, if possible, to obliterate every vestige of their cannibalism ; but it is not to be done by an uncircumspect and hasty violence ; to confound the characters, public or private, of such men as Boissy D’Anglas, Barthelemy, Pichegru, Thibadeau, Lanjounois, Gopilleau, Garnier de L’Anbe, Dumas, &c. with Barrere, Billaud, Isnard, Hebert, Santerre, Chaumette, Collot, citizen Egalité, and Drouet, would be full as unfair, and as absurd, as to brand the innovation in church and state, attempted by the first Condé, and De Coligny, with the same infamy as appertains to Jean Bon-homme and his villainous ragamuffins, in the reign of Charles VI ; or to estimate our Hampden, Holles, and Sidney, no better than the Tylers, the Straws, and the Cades.

‘ France is, in our apprehension, no longer to be feared by Great Britain, “ as France, nor as Jacobin France,” but as France with her colonies restored to her, and left in peaceable possession of the Low Countries ; to add three million of subjects to her diminished population ; to appropriate exclusively to herself, the traffic and toil of those territories : — to cut off absolutely all access to us, with South Germany and Switzerland ; to open the Scheldt — re-found an emporium at Antwerp — keep Holland in subjection — extend her coasting navigation — and approximate her domain to the Baltic countries, from whence she draws her naval stores.

‘ Fidelity to our ally, the emperor, lays us under an obligation to struggle for a recovery of what has been taken from him during our partnership in the contest. The steady and intrepid conduct of that prince makes some amends for the recreant defection of others ; who, while the French democrats are busy to excite hatred towards them in one half of Europe, take infinite pains, by their crouch-

ing timidity, to inspire the remaining half with a most humiliating contempt.

‘ But is it merely to serve the purposes of an emperor of Germany, that we are to continue the war?—Certainly not. The measure is become indispensably requisite for the preservation of ourselves, and our posterity. We are aware of the maxim, often repeated, and founded on very learned classical authority, that “A bad peace is preferable to the most successful war.” It far from applies to the present purpose; for by such terms as the French republic now indicates a disposition to listen to, our ruin must follow: whereas, by pursuing the war with success (and, if our means are well employed, we perceive no gloomy perspective of the reverse) we secure a permanent tranquillity, probably for ages to come.—Dictators aboard our ships, we choose the field of contention for our armies; and there is this material difference between conquests made by the enemy, and our’s—that what they have won by the campaigns of Flanders, and on the banks of the Rhine and the Meuse, in 1794 and 1795, and kept at an immense cost of blood and treasure during 1796, they may, and it is most likely they will, lose again in 1797 or 1798. One battle shall wrest a sceptre out of the hand of a king or an emperor, which the next, by the ordinary fortune of war, shall restore: but it is no longer in the chances of battle to wrest from the grasp of Albion the trident of Neptune; such is the invincible ascendancy we have established on the main; and, while we rule the waves, the French colonies in either India must, consequently, if we please, be our’s.—An island fortuitously, and through negligence on our part, like Guadaloupe, recaptured, answers no better end to France than to add to the heavy load already on her finances, and to bury garrison upon garrison, from epidemic diseases, so frequent under the tropical climates; nor can she look for any beneficial return, not a single vessel with the produce of Guadaloupe having, in two years, found its way safe home to Europe.’ p. 62.

We shall stop here to observe that the author seems to have forgotten that English lives, no less than French, have been subjected to the same dreadful sacrifice, and in a still greater proportion. In bartering English lives for rum, sugar, and cotton, who will say that we have been the gainers?—Our author continues—

‘ A nominal peace with France, which is the only one yet in view with the republic, would, in fact, be a short and jealous suspension of hostilities; and if such a peace were concluded, it would be insanity in Great Britain to disarm—the must still maintain, grievous as her burthens are, a heavy war expenditure.

‘ A maritime armistice (for no more would it in fact prove) is the most perilous position in which we can be placed—the only one  
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by which our enemies can be made able to face us again at sea.— We are not now to speak of the impolicy, or the sagacity—the justice or injustice, of first undertaking the contest; but to reason, and to act on the existing state of affairs. It might be difficult to vindicate an interference with the internal policy of any other country, independent as ourselves, except, as in this case, when such internal policy is found to operate externally, to the end of an inordinate aggrandizement, destructive of our welfare, and big with the most alarming and incalculable mischiefs. The British ministers, who, if Louis XVI were still seated on the throne of France, had suffered him to invade and over-run Flanders and Brabant, and give laws on the Scheldt, without instantly declaring war; or with the *poltronerie* of an Acuda, should shrink from the conflict, and though the game were more losing than at present, agree to let their country pass under the yoke of the republic, ought certainly to be impeached; and would deserve a much worse sentence than the voyage to Botany-Bay.

‘While France makes the mere possibility of retaining the Low-countries, out-weigh in the scale of her policy the sure re-possession of her American islands, she gives an unequivocal proof of her intention to continue a belligerent and turbulent republic, abandoning, for the sake of so monstrous and vague a scheme of ambition, many of her most considerable cities, together with numberless blessings which nothing but a solid peace can insure.’ p. 68.

Urged by the interesting nature of the subject, and the able manner in which it is treated, we have already exceeded our usual limits in the review of the work before us. We therefore refer our readers to the concluding pages, for an interesting account of the atrocities of the Robespierrian reign, and a variety of characteristic anecdotes and facts which have not appeared in any other account of the French revolution.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE

### FINANCE.

*A Second Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, on a National Bank. By Edward Tatham, D.D. Rector of Lincoln College, Oxford. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1797.*

‘I AM a plain man, simple in my manner, and blunt in my expression.’ So speaks our author of himself; and this author is head of a learned seminary, whose employment it is to infuse solidity of reasoning, elegance of taste, and correctness of diction, into the rising generation. We presume, therefore, that he means to

to guard his pupils, by the above quotation, from making his practice, and not his precepts, the basis of their conduct. If the author's title had not been affixed to the work, we could not certainly have adjudged such a publication to a patron of literature, but must have given it to some unsuccessful dabbler on the stock-exchange. The learned doctor is out of his element when he talks of *currency*, *circulation*, and *the circulation of currency*. He puts us in mind of the old song in the almanacs, from which, probably, he borrowed the idea in the following paragraph—

‘ When a safe and honourable peace arrives currency will flow back into our ports with a full and rapid tide. But, in the interim, what is to support the necessary circulation? For the circulation of currency in the body politic to enable it to perform all the functions and operations of the vast national machine, is analogous to that of the blood in the human body, by which it is fed and enabled to perform all its functions with health and vigour. And how is this currency to be supplied to keep in motion the wheel of circulation, which keeps in motion the wheel of commerce, which feeds the national resources, which supply the national revenues, which furnish our supplies by sea and land, which alone can maintain the war, which alone can ensure us such a peace? P. 10.

The doctor's plan to increase the circulation of currency, and currency of circulation, is confined to three things—1st. To a national bank, which, besides a variety of other advantages, is to produce half a million clear profit to the nation, and to put ministers to the trouble only of signing between seven and eight hundred thousand notes.

‘ But, would not this supersede the bank of England? It would be a superior to assist and to support, but not to supersede it, in the usual sense of that expression. Without trenching upon the chartered rights of that honourable company, it would, I own, and I glory to own it: it would break the monopoly of the bank of England. It would, I own, and I glory to own it: it would deliver the agriculture, the commerce, and the resources of England out of the power of the bank of England. It would, I own, and glory to own it: it would make the government of England independent upon the bank of England.’ P. 19.

If the doctor could make the bank independent of the government, he would receive the thanks of the nation and the proprietors.

The second thing to be done, is simply to gain two millions and a half by a national insurance; and the third thing (a very easy matter!) to call all the plate in the kingdom, (above a certain weight, into the mint. By this mean we secure a sufficient quantity of gold and silver at one blow; we send people to the braziers, the potters, and glass shops, for new utensils; and then, by a swinging tax up-

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on the commodities of the latter, we may add a few millions more to the revenue. The colleges will not be obliged to our author for his scheme of plate-seizing, unless they are meant, by the one exception which he has reserved, in case this plan is adopted.

*New Circulating Medium : being an Examination of the Solidity of Paper Currency, and its Effects on the Country at this Crisis.* 8vo. 6d. Johnson. 1797.

A circulating medium ! pretty words upon an exchange, when gold is not to be seen. Money, or money's worth, used to be the saying in former times ; but now, if money is not to be had, we are to make some other circulating medium : that is, we are to give to paper an ideal value, and to have the benefit of a mine, without being at the trouble to extract the ore. This last idea is well exposed in the pamphlet before us ; and indeed the whole subject is clear to a man of common consideration. Whilst paper really represents property of any sort, there is, in many cases, a great advantage in transferring, by its means, property from one to another ; but from the moment that the connection between it and its representative is either destroyed or impaired, a great deal of inconvenience must result to society. We have seen the experiment tried on a large scale in France and America : and, according to the extent in which the same system is adopted in other nations, proportional will be the injury which they sustain.

‘ The creation of paper money for the exigencies of the public service, now becomes an evil of portentous and probable calculation. The bank seems to be identified with government ; if, disdaining the claims of its creditors, the gold in its coffers was at the service of government, surely its notes, less precious, will not be withholden.’ P. 19.

*The Iniquity of Banking : or, Bank Notes proved to be an Injury to the Public, and the real Cause of the present exorbitant Price of Provisions.* 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1797.

The bankers have sustained a greater injury by the late stoppage, than they can possibly do from the speculations before us. Like every other branch of trade, banking may be abused ; but it is not right to argue, from the abuse of any thing, against its utility. The present difficulties do not seem to us to take their rise from iniquity in banking, but from the enormous gains which monied men are now in the habit of extorting from the public, by the support which they give to administration. The interest of money in the public funds is now between six and seven per cent ; consequently money is dearer than it used to be ; and yet provisions in general bear a higher value than they did ten years ago. We must therefore look to some other cause for this rise in provision, than the use of paper instead of cash, of which, till within a month or two,

two, it was only the representative, and for which at any time cash was to be had. In banking, as in other trades, things left to themselves will find their proper level. At times a country banker may, by improper speculations, ruin a number of his neighbours; but this happens equally to the hop merchant, the grocer, or the West India merchant. If there is not property to answer notes, the receivers must suffer; and the late intimation given by the bankers throughout the kingdom, will promote the advice recommended at the close of this pamphlet, namely, that all gentlemen should keep as much money as possible in their own possession, instead of leaving it in the hands of their bankers.

## POLITICAL.

*Measures recommended for the Support of Public Credit. By Captain James Burney. 4to. 1s. Robinsons. 1797.*

Peace and the dismissal of ministry. On the confidence of the proprietors of land, there is a bold, but not less true, sentiment advanced—

‘The support of public credit is equally the interest of the proprietor of land as of the proprietor of stock. The landholder may not be aware how much his interest is implicated; and men are apt to say, “If there should be a bankruptcy, thank God, the land remains.” I say too, thank God, that the land remains; and that no extravagance of mankind, however they may injure the produce, can annihilate the land. If mankind could have had such communication with the inhabitants of the sun or of the moon, or with any other agents, visible or invisible, as by parting with territory from the face of the earth to have obtained the means of supplying their immediate purposes, long before our time there would not have been a foot of land for an Englishman, or, probably, for a man of any other country, to have been born upon.’ P. 13.

*Plan of Preparation against Invasion: proposed by Captain James Burney, of his Majesty's Navy. Second Edition: in which a material Objection to the Plan, as before printed, is considered, and provided against. 4to. 6d. Robinsons. 1797.*

Arm and exercise the people in their parishes.—The plan has been adopted, we believe, with success in Switzerland; but how far the people of this country may, with any due regard to their personal liberties, enroll themselves under Mr. Pitt's act, and subject themselves to the horrid despotism of martial law, is another question. The objection from the expense is of little consequence; another objection is well answered by the author—

‘Another objection which I have heard offered against such a plan is, that danger is to be apprehended from arming the people, on account of the number of the disaffected in the kingdom.

CAT, REV. VOL. XX, June, 1797.

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Dislike

Dislike to an administration, dislike to a government, and dislike to the country itself, are three distinct things. Many may be, and in this country no doubt many there are, who may be charged with the first, but who, nevertheless, love both the form of government and their country. Miserable indeed must be the state of a country, where the people, in time of imminent danger, may not be trusted to defend themselves. The enquiry, if such a cause of apprehension really exists, or the occasion of such a cause, is too intricate to enter into, and fortunately may be shifted from the present purpose; for whatever suspicions there may be of disaffection, any danger to be apprehended from arming, is obviated by the people being divided and exercised by parishes; and where the parishioners are numerous, they may be exercised by portions, on different days, so that each shall be out one forenoon in the week. In such divisions, and where men do not choose for themselves who shall be stationed on each side of them, there cannot exist the smallest probability that any kind of combination would be attempted, or that, if attempted, it could have the smallest chance of success.' p. 8.

*Regulations of Parochial Police, combined with the Military and Naval Armaments, to produce the Energy and Security of the whole Nation, roused from its general Torpor by the Prospects of the Disorder, Pillage, Crimes, and all the Desolation and Horror which, without such Regulations, may be the Consequences of the determined and repeated Efforts of France to invade Great Britain and Ireland. Submitted to the serious and immediate Consideration of the Legislatures, the Governments, and the People. 12mo. 1s. Owen. 1797.*

The plan of parochial police recommended by this sensible and dispassionate writer is worthy of the consideration of the legislature, but, we apprehend, would be dangerous or useless, unless the legislature takes into its previous consideration other means to promote a spirit of unanimity among the people, than have hitherto been adopted. It cannot be denied that there is much disaffection in the nation: and although the grounds of that disaffection may at present be merely the sufferings incidental to an unprosperous war, and therefore removable in a great degree by a peace,—yet, if treated with contempt and branded as criminal, it certainly would not be very wise to put arms into the hands of men thus irritated. A want of *real* public spirit is the greatest calamity which this war has produced.

*Plain Thoughts of a Plain Man, addressed to the Common Sense of the People of Great Britain: with a few Words, en passant, to the uncommun Sense of Mr. Erskine. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Bell. 1797.*

This is not one of your blunt downright honest men, who will speak his mind, let who will say nay to him. There is nothing of plain-

plainness in the pamphlet: and we see no reason for calling that an address to the plain sense of the people, which is nothing but a studied defence of administration in every part of its conduct. The old cant about the war shows the designs of this plain author very early in his pamphlet—

‘The present war, however, did not proceed, as so many wars have done, from the rival spirit of jealous nations, from the wanton ambition of kings, or the incapacity of ministers. It was not a war where the real interests of a people were to be sacrificed to the intrigues of a court, or the vain phantom of glory. It was a war of protection, not merely of one nation, but of almost all civilized Europe, against a people who had declared themselves the enemies of all civilization. It was a war of order against confusion; of civil government against anarchy; of freedom against despotism; of religion against infidelity; of civilized and rational beings, against a savage, a cannibal and insensate people.’ P. 4.

If this were true, what is to become of mankind, since the infidel party has been every-where victorious on the continent, and consequently civilisation, government, and religion, are to give way to anarchy, ferocity, and confusion?

But another part of the pamphlet will teach this plain gentleman how little qualified he is to discuss these political questions.—

‘The suspension of paying cash at the bank in exchange for notes, is an event which, six months ago, I should have considered as the passing-bell of Old England; and yet it has been grounded on such circumstances, managed with such skill, and supplied with such remedies, as to encourage the nation instead of depressing it. For, as the quelling an insurrection always strengthens the arm of government; I know not whether, by a temporary suspension, credit itself may not be sometimes advanced.’ P. 65.

Now we leave our plain gentleman to compare together the two passages which we have quoted: and if he has been so much mistaken in his ideas on the stopping of the bank, he may, perhaps, on re-examining the first quotation, find equal reason to be dissatisfied with his crude notions of civilisation, religion, and government. We cannot submit this consideration to his plain sense: for the whole tenor of the work before us convinces us that the author must be far removed from the character of a plain downright man; and that he would be much offended with us, if we did not give him credit for considerable refinements above the vulgar, in style, language, sense, and argument.

*Letter to a Minister of State, on the Connection between the Political System of the French Republic, and the System of its Revolution. Translated from the French of Mallet du Pan. 8vo. 1s. Longman. 1797.*

The translator informs us that this letter has been imputed to



Mallet du Pan: and the result of his inquiries tends, in his opinion, to establish the justice of the imputation. Of what nature his inquiries may have been, we know not; but there is no internal evidence to prove it the production of a writer 'distinguished for the depth of his knowledge, the justness of his views, and the acuteness of his observations.' Indeed we have our doubts whether it be *bona fide* a translation. The turn of expression is far from French. It appears rather to come from an imitator of Burke (and Mallet du Pan has been called a second Burke); and its object is of the same tendency with the Letters of that gentleman on Regicide Peace. A short specimen shall suffice—

'The consequences of this stagnation of the maritime commerce of England upon her industry, her credit, her public revenue, and her internal repose, need only be indicated: the directory have calculated, them all. And while, by this means, they relax the main spring of British power, they incessantly attack, by a multiplicity of agents, intrigues, and exertions, the fidelity of the people and the stability of their laws; the spirit of party has enlisted under their banners, and possibly without intending it; one step farther, and they will find themselves in alliance with those eighty thousand jacobins whose existence has been proclaimed by Mr. Burke, and who are nothing more than eighty thousand servants of the directory. Who knows even, whether plots more active, more personal, will not be directed against the king and the principal members of the government? Is there a crime of which the proposition, the examination, or the adoption, may not be daily found in the political ledger of the administrators of the republican revolution?

'In short, these clandestine manœuvres, this fatal infection, whose progress they stimulate, are the first parallels of a regular siege, which will be executed by the means of descents. It certainly never entered into the thoughts of the directory to conquer England as William the Norman did. Their object is to spread desolation and confusion over that island. They hope, and not without reason, to rally around their standards, when once fixed on British ground, all the banditti and incendiaries, all the rogues and disturbers of public peace, all ambitious men who are destitute of morals, and the indigent who are averse from the restraint of laws. Those Irish defenders, whom they justly call their brothers; those defenders, whom general Hoche, in his proclamation, paints in the same colours that Cato of Utica employed to paint the Roman senate, are nothing more than highwaymen, and thieves by profession. The men of property in England, more enlightened, more attached to their country, than men of a similar description in other parts of Europe, have hitherto opposed an impenetrable phalanx to the revolutionary spirit of profelytism; but can they look forward, without shuddering, to the time when a foreign army, commanded

by jacobias, and composed of the dregs of France, shall give the signal of revolt, and lend their support to the multitude who have no property?

'To ruin the power of the house of Austria, and to subvert England, are the two grand objects of the directorial policy, at this moment. If they attain this object, even imperfectly, they think themselves sure of easily subduing the rest of Europe.' F. 33.

*Strictures on Peace. The Englishman and the Reformer, a Dialogue. By Mr. Dunn. 8vo. 6d. Richardson. 1796.*

The Englishman doubts whether we can make a permanent peace with the French republic. The reformer contends for a new order of things, and permanent peace to all the world. They talk the matter well; but the Englishman is made to have the last word. On a subject so hackneyed, we may be excused from entering farther.

*A Letter to the Tars of Old England. By Mr. Pratt. 8vo. 3d. Debrett. 1797.*

*A Letter to the British Soldiers. By Mr. Pratt. 8vo. 3d. Debrett. 1797.*

In these publications we see little to commend beyond the author's good intentions. The former inculcates, no doubt, very properly, the importance of subordination; and exhorts, at a very reasonable moment, such of the sailors as may have been misled by designing traitors, to return to their duty. The latter very justly commends the steady loyalty of the soldiers at this period, and bestows a well-timed encomium on that humanity, for which we hope the British character is distinguished in every situation.

*A Display of the Spirit and Designs of those who, under Pretext of a Reform, aim at the Subversion of the Constitution and Government of this Kingdom. With a Defence of Ecclesiastical Establishments. By the Rev. G. Bennett, Minister of the Gospel in Carlisle. 8vo. 3s. Boards. Richardson. 1796.*

In the early ages of Christianity, there was nothing too absurd and wicked to be laid to its charge by its adversaries:—our author seems to have made the heathen writers his model,—and there is nothing too bad to be laid to the charge of modern reformers. What good purpose this can answer, we do not see; but besides the injustice to our countrymen, the writer is not probably aware that, by overcharging his picture, he destroys, in a great measure, the effect he intended to produce. At the close of his book, after describing the happiness of this country, he tells us that he 'would not be understood to mean that things are exactly as they ought to be.' Then let him learn to bear with those, who, seeing things in the same light with himself, may wish to assist in making them better.

We are apt to suspect that he has drawn all his positions from local circumstances : but even if the character of the reformers had been as he wishes to make it, we could not think it right to irritate, instead of appeasing ; and a very different kind of conduct might have been pursued with advantage both to himself and the public, if he had attended more carefully to his own rank, given in the bottom of the title-page, ' minister of the gospel.'

*A Mirror for Princes, in a Letter to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. By Hampden. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Jordan. 1797.*

Those who remember the Letter to the Prince \*, published about two years ago, may be told that this Mirror is a continuation of the same expostulatory advice, written with some degree of elegance, though the style is often affectedly pompous, and with equal asperity. It is not for us to appreciate the justice of these attacks. The illustrious personage who is the object, will, we hope, have the magnanimity to despise them if groundless, and to remove the cause of odium, if conscious that it exists. The following sentiment we select for its general application to persons of high rank—

' It is in vain that we have endeavoured to enlarge our constructions of treason ; that we have fettered society with new shackles of authority ; that we have exerted our reason and our eloquence against the new philosophy, if our doctrines are contradicted by our example. There is a jacobinism more poisonous, more subtle, more deadly, than all that can be collected from the dreams of theorists, or the harangues of demagogues—it is the jacobinism of princely vices.' p. 60.

We add, may France be the last country that seals the truth of this remark with her blood !

*Memoirs of Charette, Chief of the Royal and Christian Armies in the Interior of France : containing Anecdotes of his private Life, and Details of the War in La Vendée. By an Emigrant of Distinction. Translated from the French. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Jordan. 1797.*

This is an affectionate tribute to the memory of Charette, but rather in the manner of the French *eloges*, than in that of a historical memoir. The object was certainly not unworthy of what is said of his zeal, valour, and humanity ; but we suspect that the partiality of the writer has given a colour to some circumstances more favourable than can be vindicated by proof. The author reports that Charette was promised by the convention to have the son of Louis XVI. given up to him, and that the death of the young prince induced him to renew hostilities.

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XIV, p. 334.

*An Account of the Origin and Progress of the Society for the Promotion of Industry, in the Hundreds of Ongar and Harlow, and the Half hundred of Waltham, in the County of Essex.* 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1797.

The plan of this society is well deserving the consideration of the leading men in other parts of the country where it may be carried into execution. Similar institutions have been adopted at Shrewsbury, Lincolnshire, Rutlandshire, and at Glasgow. The object is to prevent indigence, by encouraging industry and good morals. Schools are established for different works, and premiums adjudged to those who have distinguished themselves by labour, or by bringing up their families in a decent manner. This society is yet in its infancy: but the subscriptions for its support are liberal, and the attention of the committees to the original principles of the institution, bids fair to render it a permanent good in the district where it is established.

## D R A M A T I C.

*A Cure for the Heart-Ache; a Comedy, in five Acts, as performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden.* By Thomas Morton, Esq. 8vo. 2s Longman. 1797.

The heart-ache must be very slight which this comedy can cure. It depends for its effect, like most of the comedies of the present day, upon the life thrown into it by the exertions of the actors, particularly those whose talents lie chiefly in farce. The characters introduced are a nabob, lately got into parliament,—his daughter, proud, vain, and fashionable,—an old taylor, who has left off business with an immense fortune,—and his son, a spoiled youth, who runs himself into difficulties by aping the follies of his superiors, but having good dispositions, reforms, and marries the young woman he was engaged to, but had for a time forsaken—An old English baronet, with his son, and a young lady whose fortune had become the prey of the rapacity of Vortex, the nabob, are the serious characters of the play, if character can be applied at all to sketches drawn in so loose and inaccurate a manner. What little humour there is in the piece, is chiefly between the two taylor, father and son.

*The Will: a Comedy, in five Acts. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury-Lane.* By Frederick Reynolds. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1797.

This piece is very slight, and has little pretensions to nature or probability; the most prominent character in it is evidently written with a view to our best comic actress; but even with her fascinating powers, it has not, we believe, been received with great favour by the public.

## RELIGIOUS.

*A Letter to William Wilberforce, Esq. on the Subject of his late Publication. By Gilbert Wakefield, B. A. late Fellow of Jesus-College, Cambridge. 8vo. 2s. Kearsley. 1797.*

With the style of this author the public is well acquainted; and the charges which he brings against his antagonist, are of a very serious and a very important nature. We disapproved much of some party politics in the publication of Mr. Wilberforce; our author attacks him with great warmth, and we cannot say without appearance of reason, for the disagreement between his religious speculations and political conduct. He asks him to reconcile with his '*looking to Jesus*,' the adherence to Mr. Pitt, the encouraging of a bloody war, under the impious pretence of religion; the intolerance used towards the Dissenters. With these points we had nothing to do in our review of the work; but to questions so warmly put, we leave to Mr. Wilberforce to make his defence. The theological part of Mr. Wilberforce's system is treated with great contempt, as was naturally to be expected from one who falls as much short of the creed of the church of England, as the other goes beyond it; and as far as criminality is to be attached to an equal deviation from a given rule by excess or defect, they will stand equally criminal in the sight of the convocation. There are obscure allusions to a hypocritical companion of Mr. Wilberforce's, which few will comprehend, who is said to have fixed his creed; but whosoever he is, if his character corresponds to the description here given, we regret that he should have had such an opportunity for the exercise of his duplicity. We recommend sincerely to the admirers of Mr. Wilberforce the work before us, and to the evangelical teachers; for by seeing so forcible an attack, they may perhaps be made less intolerant, and, on a due comparison of the merits and failings of both authors, moderate their theological and political systems.

*Sermons preached in the Parish Church of St. John, Manchester. By the Rev. J. Clower, M. A. Rector of the said Church, and late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Vol. II. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons. 1796.*

The subjects of these sermons are—The Fast Day—Lent—Easter day—Ascension-day—Jesus Christ, the Great Householder—Putting away Evil—Christian Perfection.

The style of this writer is almost as mystical, and his pages as full of spiritual interpretations, as the visions of Jacob Behmen, or the reveries of baron Swedenborg. We must beg to be excused the trouble of entering into a particular analysis; but if any of our readers should have a taste for this species of allegorical divinity, we can assure them that the following extract will be found a very faithful specimen of the volume before us—

‘ It has been already shewn, in speaking of the vineyard planted by the great householder, that every regenerate man becomes a church or household of God in particular, answering in all respects to the church or household of God in general.

‘ Of consequence, as in the general vineyard there is a hedge of distinction and separation, so it is also in the particular vineyard; and every real member of the church, whether he is aware of it or not, must of necessity, as being an individual vineyard of the great householder, be encompassed by such a hedge.

‘ Possibly, beloved, you may never have before considered this subject, nor have thought about this spiritual hedge in your own minds. It is time then, that you should now consider it, because, as being an eternal truth declared in the word of God, it must needs be infinitely interesting and instructive to you, as to your eternal concerns.

‘ Know then, and be for ever persuaded, that if you are vineyards of the Lord in particular, or in other words, if you have received his word of eternal life into your hearts and understandings, your minds are in this case encompassed with an eternal hedge of separation and distinction, whereby you are manifestly and everlastingly discriminated from those who are not of the vineyard.

‘ By virtue of this hedge, the mark of the eternal God is in your foreheads, and you are sealed to be his for eternity. You are the blessed sheep of his heavenly fold, and are for ever separated from those who are not his sheep. “They are not of the world,” saith the Lord of the vineyard of his true disciples, “even as I am not of the world.” Thus also he saith of you, “Ye are not of the world.” Ye are separated from it’s vanities and vices, from it’s delusive pleasures, and fleeting uncertainties, from the dazzling splendor of it’s enchanting glory, and the no less dangerous fear of it’s frowns and reproaches. And ye are born into another kingdom, ye belong to another family, ye are the members of another household, ye have higher ends of life, more blessed hopes and expectations, than this world can supply you with. As to your outward man, ye must indeed still for a time remain and act in the world, and for a time appear like those who are not of the vineyard; but as to your internal man, ye are chosen out of the world, ye are encompassed within the hedge of my vineyard, I know you to be my own, and will preserve you as a separate and distinct people.’ P. 65.

*A Summary of the History, Doctrine, and Discipline, of Friends: written at the Desire of the Meeting for Sufferings, in London.*  
12mo. 6d. Phillips and Son. 1797.

This is a republication of a tract which gives a concise and impartial account of the doctrines and belief of the Quakers, whose principles are often misrepresented through the ignorance of those who will not give themselves the trouble to inquire into them. It would

would be a valuable service to the public, if *all sects were to give* a similar account of their peculiar tenets. Much confusion, and often personal mischief, arises from the want of accurate information of this kind.

*An Appeal to Popular Prejudice, in Favour of the Jews: in a Letter, addressed to a Member of Parliament.* 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1796.

This letter is addressed to the member of parliament who stood forth, though unsuccessfully, an able advocate for the abolition of the slave trade: and he is thence supposed to be an advocate for 'human nature, and the privileges of mankind.' It is possible for a person to be deeply impressed with the distresses of one man or set of men, and callous to the calls of humanity from other quarters. It is possible to be zealous for the abolition of slavery in Africa, and to countenance measures which shall shed more Christian blood in a year than pagan blood in slave-ships in a century. A man may still farther be zealous for some species of liberty, be an advocate even for some degree of toleration, yet bigoted in other cases, so as to confine his Christian love solely to those persons who are within the pale of his peculiar sect. Such is the lot of men when they act from partial views, not on general principles. The great law of our religion is to do good to all men as far as it lies in our power. Jews, Turks, infidels, heretics, have all a claim on our benevolence. But how few Christians can digest this expansive system of benevolence! They carve out a little spot for themselves: and if they do not join in active endeavours to ruin persons of the descriptions above mentioned, they rarely will lend a hand to assist them in their distresses. Such a conduct is unworthy of a Christian. He who is zealous for the name of Christ, who really looks to Christ, must show it by imitating the peculiar tenderness of our Saviour's character, and a spirit of universal benevolence. The Jews are our brethren, our elder brethren, to whom the oracles of God were first confided. They are slighted, injured, oppressed, not only by the great and little vulgar in this nation, but by those men who affect to have a deeper insight into Christianity than their brethren. This is really a popular prejudice, and a detestable prejudice: we are happy that an attempt is made to stem it; and if any one who reads the scriptures, and has a regard for them, should join, in thought, word, or deed, in this base and vulgar prejudice, we recommend to him the arguments in the work before us, as a gentle remedy to such a disease.

*Pious Memorials; exemplifying the Power of Religion upon the Mind; in the Lives, Sufferings, and Death, of many eminent Christians; Ancient and Modern.* 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Verner and Hood. 1797.

A very imperfect collection. The chief of them are tinged with enthusiasm.

Three

*Three Sermons inscribed to the Friends of Peace, Reason, and Reformation. By a Clergyman of the Church of England. 12mo. 2s. 6d. B. and J. White. 1796.*

Of these Sermons, the first and last are, for the most part, of a practical nature; but the second 'is intended as an antidote to some passages in the writings of Thomas Paine.' We extract from it the following observations, which we think sensible and just —

'The French doctrines have teemed with so many atrocities, and such outrage, that I am sure I shall be pardoned the digression for a moment, while I enquire, what has nevertheless made them so palatable, and so prolific of proselytes. It is, brethren, the sentiments of philanthropy which they have purloined from the Christian system; and to disguise whence they have been stolen, they have renounced their profession of Christianity, and their faith in the cross. They have garbled from the gospel some of its loveliest sentiments, and its mild pacific doctrines, but they have not acted upon them. While they have been uttering the most amiable maxims of peace, and good will to men, which were first promulgated by the humble Jesus, and which would never have been even thought of without the light of revelation; while they have been vaunting these, they have been surpassing the most savage cruelties of the most savage people; they have been aspiring beyond the barbarous proscriptions and accumulated murders of Marius, and Sylla. They have made the mountains of carnage in the devastation of former ages vanish into imperceptible spots in the long perspective of their ferocious desolation. They have had the sentiments of the gospel in their mouths, while they have been cutting the throat of all religion. With the breath of the lamb, they have blasted the altar, and made the world look pale.

'Were some new Solon to appear upon the earth, and were he asked to compose a government for the nations of Europe; he would not so much consider what was the best possible government, as what was the government the people could best bear; he would study their manners, their opinions, their prejudices, their vices; he would form a system which should humour, and as it were insensibly smooth away the one, and by gentle gradations destroy the other.

'He would not imagine that a system of unmixed purity would suit the impurest natures; or that a constitution of speculative unmixed good was adapted to mortals, in whose very nature there is such a mixture of evil. He would judge that the violent passions which at times tempest the frame of man will be perpetually producing commotions and confusion, unless governments be established with a strong coercive energy; the energy not merely of fluctuating and transient, but of permanent hereditary power. The force must not only be strong, but impregnable to the sudden explosions of popular outrage; and invested not in ephemeral, but in

endurable



endurable magistrates. There must be a steady vigour in the arm that hurls the thunder on the guilty head.

‘ Where there is power there should be permanence; and in proportion to the inconstancy of the popular temper should be the permanence of the constituted powers. This will be evident from a proper attention to the frequent commotions and tempests in those popular governments where all hereditary power has been disclaimed, and there is a constant change in public trusts, and a constant succession of public functionaries. The frequent shifting of the magistrate in some measure viliifies the office; keeps the public mind in a perpetual ferment; and disposes it to frequent tumults, and destructive agitations.

‘ Where is power there should be authority; or otherwise the power itself will lose half the force and vigour of its operations. Power and authority, though often confounded, are, in reality, very distinct things. Power is physical force; acts by mechanical impulsion, and operates on the will by the fears: but authority is rather a moral force; which rules at pleasure the voluntary powers by its fascinating sway over the affections and the heart.

‘ Where power is in a state of perpetual motion; where it is constantly fluctuating here and there, from this to that, and that to this; no time is left for respect to take root, or for authority to be established. The way to the heart is long and intricate: and is not the work of a day or a year. It must result from a long course of public services, a long experience of fidelity in office, and of love for the public welfare. This cannot be, in the motley rotations, the puppet-show of republicanism; in which public caprice is continually pushing one on the stage, and driving another off; where no magistrate is long stationary; where chance does more than choice; intrigue more than virtue; where the mere exhibition of vigour and ability is the signal for distrust; and where a vigilant and wise exertion of delegated power, which at all goes against the popular humour of the moment, excites against integrity the cries of treason, and the clamours of usurpation. The individual, driven from his post by the torrent of public fury, is either exiled from his friends and his home, or made to expiate his virtue in his blood.

‘ It might be uncharitable to say that one government fosters crimes more than another; but, I think, it will be found that the representative system, of which so much has been vaunted by the assassins of the peace of nations, must by its very nature generate and foster a multitude of designing agitators, who are the worst of criminals, and the most destructive to public happiness and public virtue. They are fostered by the hopes of success, and the prospect of impunity; by the incessant fermentation of evil humours which darken the atmosphere of republican politics; by the fluctuations of power, the instability of magistrates, and the general relaxation and disjunction of the constituting parts of every commonwealth.

‘ But

‘But hereditary government is exempt from these evils. The political atmosphere is more calm and pure. The stability of the magistrature corrects and controuls the proverbial instability of the people. Power long consolidated in the same families cannot be easily shaken; and respect long showed will not be readily transferred.’ p. 52.

Our readers will perceive, from this specimen, that the writer thinks with energy; and if he could occasionally lop off from his style some puerile ornaments, and florid redundancies, it would possess more animation, and approach much nearer than it now does to genuine elegance.

*True Patriotism; or, Zeal for the Public Good, characterised in a Discourse, translated from the French of the great Saurin. Adapted to the present alarming Crisis, and to the late General Fast. Inscribed to Sir Richard Hill, Bart. 8vo. 1s. Griffiths. 1797.*

The translator deprecates the severity of criticism, because the translation was made in haste; but he threatens the public with another sermon, if the present should defray the necessary expenses of publication. Whether this pays the expense or not, we recommend to him to defer his next publication till he shall have had sufficient time to do the original that justice which it deserves.

*Ministers of the Gospel Witnesses for Christ. A Sermon preached before the Rev. John Carver, B. L. L. Archdeacon of Surrey, at his Visitation, held in the Parish Church of St. Saviour, Southwark, OA. 5th, 1796. By W. Winkworth, Chaplain of St. Saviour's, Southwark; and Lecturer of St. Paul's, Shadwell. Published at the Request of the Archdeacon, and others of the Clergy then present. 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1796.*

Some very useful observations, deserving the attention of the clergy. In the latter part the conduct of France is alluded to: but the misapprehensions which might have arisen from an expression in the text, are very properly corrected in the following note —

‘The author wishes to be understood as not vindicating the mummeries of popery; for he considers the folly of that profession, together with the profligacy of the priesthood, among the chief but remote causes of the revolution. But what he condemns, is the abrogation of every thing that bore the semblance of religion both good and bad; and the introduction of principles and rites totally repugnant to revelation and good order. The sacrifice of the mass might have been put down, without the exaltation of the Goddess of Reason; the dreams of purgatory, without considering death as an eternal sleep; the observance of a multiplicity of holidays, without the abolition of a commanded sabbath; the worship of the image of the Virgin Mary, without the elevation of a living idol, which they call the Goddess of Liberty. However, what has happened

pened in France, affords an important lesson to the clergy of all countries and communities, viz. to beware how they adopt spurious principles, and how they degrade their sacred function by dissolute manners. They are intended for public utility, and therefore ought to speak and act as the servants of God, for the welfare of mankind.' p. 29.

*Consolatory Views of Christianity. A Sermon, preached in the Chapel in Princes Street, Westminster, on Sunday, Nov. 27, 1796, upon Occasion of the Death of Mrs. Elizabeth Kippis, who departed this Life on the 17th Day of the same Month, in the Seventy-second Year of her Age. By Thomas Jervis. Published by the Request of the Executors. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons. 1796.*

These Views were presented to the audience from a text suggested by the deceased. They made, we doubt not, a proper impression; and this impression may be properly renewed by the friends of Mrs. Kippis in the closet. To others, perhaps, the discourse will not be so interesting.

*A Sermon preached at the Assizes holden at Wisbech, before Edward Gwillim, Esq. Chief Justice of the Isle of Ely, the 28th July 1796. By James Nasmyth, M. A. Rector of Leverington. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1796.*

An assize sermon, which, having been once preached, had fully done its duty.

## M E D I C A L.

*An Historical and Practical Treatise on the Venereal Disease; dedicated to his Grace the Duke of Queensbury. Illustrated with some remarkable Cases; being the Result of fifteen Years extensive Practice in this Metropolis: together with Observations on a late Publication of Dr. Buchan's, on this Complaint: in which his Principles are candidly examined, and clearly refuted. In this Work is laid down a Mode of Prevention, which, if universally adopted, will, in a few Years, annihilate this inveterate Disease. By C. B. Godfrey, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Symonds. 1797.*

There have been of late years published, on this and other medical subjects, pamphlets of so equivocal a description, that it has been difficult to suppose they were written for any better purpose than to introduce their authors into a more lucrative line of practice. In this view, the self-made physician may, perhaps not unjustly, think his book of as much consequence as many others that are sanctioned with names of more sterling reputation. Now if this be the case, practitioners of real character who descend to these arts, may thank themselves for the disgrace of being attacked by such scavengers in the art as Dr. Godfrey.

Attend, reader, to the following specimen of this *Practical Treatise on the Venereal Disease!*

' Order

' Order is the fence and defence of society. This order subverted, the fence is broken down, and the weapons of defence wrested from it by anarchy. Is this a state to acquire knowledge in? Is this an age to open the eyes of mankind to the despotism of power,—to the arts of priestcraft? An age that makes—

' REBELLION, — *virtuous.*

' LOYALTY, — *a crime.*

' RELIGION, — *a farce.*

' INDISCRIMINATE MASSACRE, — *the road to liberty and equality.*

' PROSCRIPTION, — *political precaution.*

' CONFISCATION, — *ways and means.*

' INVASION of neighbouring territories, accompanied with all the merciless depredations of Calmuck Tartars, — *a dissemination of the glorious blessings of liberty and equality.*

' AND

' FRATERNIZATION, or the fraternal embrace — *Squeezing to death!!!* P. 28.

Ye Brodums! — ye Solomons! — ye Meyerbachs, and Martin Vanbutchels! hide your diminished heads!

*Descriptive Account of a New Method of treating Old Ulcers of the Legs. By Thomas Baynton, Surgeon, of Bristol. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons. 1797.*

For the cure of old ulcerated legs, this writer proposes a new and effectual method. — If this proposal was really practicable, both the profession of surgery, and mankind in general, would be indebted to the inventor of it. — We are fearful that many cases will be found in the course of practice, which are too intimately connected with a general diseased frame to admit of relief from any mechanical or topical aid; and of this class is the method recommended in the present treatise. — We are very glad to congratulate the author on the reasonableness of his plan, and also to observe many physiological deductions in the course of his treatise, which display considerable acuteness of mind —

' About the commencement of the year 1792, after having experienced repeated disappointments in my endeavours to obtain permanent cures for some patients, with whom I had taken more than common pains, and for whom I had tried rest in a horizontal posture, exercise, precipitate, bandages, and every other remedy I was acquainted with, that authors had recommended, both alone, and conjoined with the most approved internal medicines: I determined on endeavouring to bring the edges of those ulcers, that might in future be placed under my care, nearer together, by means of slips of adhesive plaister; having frequently had occasion to observe, that the probability of an ulcer continuing sound depended much on the size of the cicatrix that remained after the cure appear-

ed to be accomplished : and well knowing that the natural shield of the part, the true skin, was a much more substantial support and defence, as well as a better covering, than that frail one, that is obtained by the assistance of art in the common methods of cure."

R. 7.

We are sensible of the efficacy of our author's method in many spreading ulcers, where the integument and the surrounding solids are in a relaxed and debilitated state; and we would advise the practical surgeon to read his treatise. — The useful part of his information might, however, have been condensed into a much smaller space; and his general observations, which are too much intermingled with the subject of the treatise, might have been omitted with no great disadvantage to the reader, and with some benefit to the author.

### P O E T I C A L.

*The Epistle of Horace to the Pisos, on the Art of Poetry, translated into English verse. By William Clubbe, L. L. B. Vicar of Brandeston, Suffolk. 4to. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1797.*

Horace's Art of Poetry has been so often translated and imitated, that it is become almost as familiar to the English as to the classic scholar; and a new version of it cannot be supposed to attract much attention, except it acquired new salt and poignancy by a skilful adaptation to modern incidents and modern publications. This is not the case with the performance of Mr. Clubbe, which is merely a translation, as literal as the rules of verse will allow, and not distinguished either for elegance or spirit. In undertakings of this kind, it may be considered as sufficient if they serve as innocent amusements for the author. We shall just remark that *was* and *too* are bad rhymes, and that the rhymes of the following triplet are worse—

‘ No matter,—be my office like the *hone*,  
Which gives a sharpness, tho' itself has *none*,  
To edge and spirit other poets *on*. }

*Fugitive Pieces. By Frances Greensted. 8vo. 2s. sewed. Symonds. 1796.*

The following account, which is given in the Preface, of the occasion of this publication, while it precludes all criticism on our part, will no doubt raise in the minds of our readers a favourable prepossession towards the author, who has found means to improve and adorn her mind, without quitting the humble station assigned to her by providence; and from whose continuance for so long a time in one family, (an instance too rare at present) we may fairly infer that the duties of it were faithfully and honourably discharged. She has a right, therefore, to her motto—‘ I left no calling for this idle trade.’ She says—

‘ Her

Her situation in life is that of a servant, the duties of which station she has endeavoured to fulfil in the best manner a precarious state of health would permit. In this capacity she has lived more than twenty years in one family, now resident in Maidstone, where many of the following pieces were written at different times, without the least intention of their appearance in public.

Some of these productions were shewn by a friend to a worthy and respectable clergyman, in the county of Wilts. who enquiring into the circumstances of the writer, and being informed, that she had an infirm and revered parent, upwards of eighty-two years of age, to whom she wished to render some assistance, instantly formed the benevolent design of publishing them by subscription; beginning the subscription himself, and soliciting the names and interest of his friends.' P. V.

## L A W.

*Reflections on the Advantages and Disadvantages attending Commissions of Bankruptcy; clearly pointing out when they may be beneficial or prejudicial to Creditors. And when they are beneficial, or hurtful to the unfortunate Bankrupt. A Work calculated for the Perusal and serious Attention of every Merchant, Tradesman, or Monied Man in the Kingdom. 8vo. 2s. Boag.*

These reflections are calculated for the perusal of those persons to whom the title-page informs us they are particularly addressed. We regret that so much blame should be thrown on attorneys; for we are persuaded that there are many honourable men in that profession; but it is certain also that the bankrupt laws do frequently give bad men an opportunity of turning them to their advantage. Yet the writer should have considered the extent of our trade; and then probably he might have found that the number of persons suffering under the abuse of the laws is not so great as he apprehends. A humane man will neither send a debtor to prison, nor sue out a commission of bankruptcy, unless he is driven to these terrible expedients by some very urgent necessity.

*A Letter to William Garrow, Esq. on the Subject of his illiberal Behaviour to the Author, on the Trial of a Cause (Ford against Pedder, and others,) at the Lent Assizes, 1796, held at Kingston, in the County of Surrey. With an Apology for its Publication, to Sir Beaumont Hotham, Knt. one of the Barons of his Majesty's Exchequer. By Matthew Concanen, jun. 8vo. 6d. Jordan.*

The detail of this dispute is not very interesting to the public; but to the profession it is important that no man should obtain such possession of the ear of the court, as to be able to injure the character of his inferiors with impunity. According to M. Concanen's statement, Mr. Garrow has very grossly injured him, and in a place where, although his character ought to appear in the most favourable light, he had no opportunity of vindicating himself. He, there-

fore, makes this appeal to the public: and if what he asserts be not disproved, humanity obliges us to wish that he may not make his appeal in vain.

### MISCELLANEOUS

*Original Letters, &c. of Sir John Falstaff and his Friends; now first made Public by a Gentleman, a Descendant of Dame Quickly, from genuine Manuscripts which have been in the Possession of the Quickly Family near Four Hundred Years. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.*

The humourous characters of Shakspeare have seldom been successfully imitated. Dr. Kenrick wrote a play called *Falstaff's Wedding*, in which he introduced the merry knight and his companions: but the peculiar quaintness of the character was lost by being sunk in modern wit. The author of the little work before us has, we think, been somewhat more successful, and must have given his days and nights to the study of the language of Falstaff, Dame Quickly, Slender, &c. His object, indeed, seems to be, to ridicule the late gross imposture of Norfolk-street: and certain it is, that, had these letters been introduced into the world, prepared in the manner of the Ireland MSS, the internal evidence would have spoken more loudly in their favour. But in whatever esteem they may be held as imitations, they argue no small portion of humour in the writer, who, we understand, is a young man, and this his first attempt. Our extract shall be confined to the Dedication.

‘ DEDICATION TO MASTER SAMUEL IRELAUNDE.

‘ *Right curteis and erudite fyrre,*

‘ Knownen unto you it is whatte maner of menne there be in this age, who deeme they doe mankynde mochel serveyce, whan in theyre leud sorte they make mocke at trew-scyence, whych consyseth for the most parte, it sholde seeme, in the notices we have leste us of antiquitie. These be menne, who thinke scorn of payns takeing wights (like you or me) who from the mynes of remote tyme by dynte of toyle do bringe forth to view the pretious golde and the sylvere, (wherein it may not be farre from our discourse to remarke after whatte fashyone the mynes I here discusse doe differ from mynes phyfic or natural. In as moche as these latter doe renderre uppe theyre treasures yette being rude, and (as menne commonly saien) in the oarre; whereas those mynes intellectual, abounden in a sorte of metal, whyche cometh forth on-mynghed wythe baser matter, and bearynge engraven onne it the marke and impress, whyche to menne skylful in soche thynges, and candide, dothe notifie and assure its authenticitie. Peradventure, neede is I sholde here fetch instance from thatte trew myne and ryche vein of poesye dugge out in these last days by that younge Bristowyan, and whyche to all found myndes dyd evidence a genuine byrthe. (Tho’ there be, who stycke notte to affirm

that the antique Rowley was noe oder thanne the fryplinge Chatterton, therein erring.) Bote this is a mayne digressyone from the matter in honde, tho' therein I stande notte alone, having notable exemplar in thatte famose wight of antiquitie, the Latine poet Vergilius (as Dan Chaucer 'clepeth him aryghte, whom the mincinge mouthe of after tymes mys-nameth Virgil.) Alsoe if neede were, I might here cite the exeimplar of thatte grete Clerke himselfe, of whom his pupil Spenser wele affyrmeth thatte he is a "Well of Englishe ondesyled." After thys fashyone he speaketh. And now letten us come forthwith to the main subiecte of our discourse.

\* Those rare gyftes of fortuna to menne, the lyghtynge upon lost recordes, and the inventorye \* of MS. have in thys our daye been farre outdonne by thatte rare discoverie by yourselfe made. Tell me, curteis fyrre, was it by spade and by mattocke thatte you dyd fynde those goodlye thynges? Were those shrewde knaves carterers for you, who dyd fathome a grave for mistresse Ophelia? Those madde rogues who dyd poke agaynste the scull of a droll jesterre, thereby affordynge moche matter of mathematycalle sonne for master Laurence Sterne? Methinks you doe call to life agayne thatte swote swanne of Avonne, whose songes dyd sounde so pleasaunt in the eares of thatte peerlesse mayden quene and renowned victrix of Spayne, Elizabeth. Bote by the pryce sette upon your labours by the wyttes of the age, it sholde seeme lamentable matter of facte, howe moche poesy, and the pryme phanseys and conceipts of connyng menne are fallen into contempte in these the worldis last dayes. Natheles, master Irelaunde, letten us not be fruiteleslye caste downe—The tyme dothe faste approche, nay even now is close at honde, when the overcharged cloudes of scepticyisme muste incontinently vanish before convictione's serener welkin, and Edmonde shall in vayne resume his laboures. Arreste thyne eyne—looke backe atte the goodlye figure of the auntient knight—naye, looke notte cursorye, it is the impresse of a ryghte venerable picture traunsmitted downwardes throughe our house forre foure hondredde yeares.—Seest thou notte the antique characteres ygraved onne the belte? Doubtleffe they doe reflecte a lighte collaterale uponne thy clerkish manuscripts; ande doubtlesse by a twofolde operatyone doe they confyrme unto the world by theyre evidence the truth of the Falstaffe Letteres. To conclude; the matter of facte (as soe it sholde seeme) muste be pleasaunt and gratefull untoe thee, master Irelaunde, to know thatte in the dayes of the Fifth Henry an ancestor of thyne was a maker of trunke hose, or as it is spoken of in these moderne tymes, a maker of pantaloones.

\* Trustyng thatte posteritie shall yet remunerate us for our un-

\* Inventorye, or discoverie, from the Latine verbe, *invenire*.



dertakynge (which are simylare) wythe a lyke portyone of laud and praife, I doe commende thee unto thye beste fortunes.

‘Thy fellow-labourer in the mynes of antiquitie, and moſte humble ſervante to commande,

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This is followed by a Preface, giving an account how the letters came into the hands of the preſent poſſeſſor: and it is at leaſt as conſiſtent as that of *maſter Irelaunde*, and may be believed with leſs injury to the pocket, and without the neceſſity of an *Apology*!

*An Attempt to deſcribe Hafod, and the neighbouring Scenes about the Bridge over the Funack, commonly called the Devil's Bridge, in the County of Cardigan, &c. By George Cumberland. Small 8vo. 2s. Egerton. 1796.*

The known good taſte of the author of theſe remarks is alone ſufficient to ſtamp their value; we ſhall therefore content ourſelves with extracting the following introductory particulars—

‘Hafod, uſually pronounced Havod,’ (ſays Mr. Cumberland) ‘is a place in itſelf ſo pre eminently beautiful, that it highly merits a particular deſcription. It ſtands ſurrounded with ſo many noble ſcenes, diverſified with elegance as well as with grandeur; the country on the approach to it is ſo very wild and uncommon, and the place itſelf is now ſo embellished by art, that it will be difficult, I believe, to point out a ſpot that can be put in competition with it, conſidered either as the object of the painter's eye, the poet's mind, or as a deſirable reſidence for thoſe who, admirers of the beautiful wildneſs of nature, love alſo to inhale the pure air of aſpiring mountains, and enjoy that *santa pace* (as the Italians expreſſively term it) which ariſes from ſolitudes made ſocial by a family-circle.

‘Hafod, to all theſe charms, unites inducements which, though not uncommon in England, have there, at ſuch a diſtance from the capital, a peculiar grace. It has a capacious ſtone-maniſion, executed in the pleaſing, becauſe appropriate ſtile of Gothic architecture; ſituated on the ſide of a choſen, ſheltered dingle, embowered with trees, which riſe from a lawn of the gentleſt declivity, that ſelves in graceful hollows to the ſtream below.

‘From the portico it commands a woody, narrow, winding vale; the undulating forms of whoſe aſcending, ſlaggy ſides, are richly clothed with various foliage, broken with ſilvery water-falls, and crowned with climbing ſheep-walks, reaching to the clouds.

‘Neither are the luxuries of life abſent; for, on the margin of the Yſtwyth, where it flows broadest through this delicious vale, we ſee hot-houſes, and a conſervatory; beneath the rocks a bath; amid the receſſes of the woods a flower garden; and within the building, whoſe decorations, though rich, are pure and ſimple, we find a maſs of rare and valuable literature, whoſe pages here ſeem doubly precious, where meditation finds ſcope to range unmoleſted.

‘In

‘In a word, so many are the delights afforded by the scenery of this place and its vicinity, to a mind imbued with any taste, that the impression on mine was encreased after an interval of ten years from the first visit, employed chiefly in travelling among the Alps, the Apennines, the Sabine Hills, the Tyrollese; along the shores of the Adriatic, over the Glaciers of Switzerland, and up the Rhine; where, though in search of beauty, I never, I feel, saw any thing so fine, never so many pictures concentered in one spot; so that, warmed by the renewal of my acquaintance with them, I am irresistibly urged to attempt a description of the hitherto almost virgin-haunts of these obscure mountains.’ P. 1.

After a most animated description of the picturesque scenery of Hafod, Mr. Cumberland concludes in the following manner—

‘Thus,’ (says he) ‘I have brought the reader to the end of my detail, and to a point where I may well be dispensed with; for it is not only beyond my abilities to enter into a full relation of the scenes about this place, but quite unnecessary, for all are now before him, expanded under the admiring and astonished eye — and never eye, I will venture to affirm, beheld these scenes without astonishment: I shall therefore only say, at parting, from the divine poet I have so often quoted — that these hills like

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Paradise,

Now nearer crowns with her enclosures green,  
As with a rural mound, the champion head,  
Of a steep wilderness; whose hairy sides,  
With thicket overgrown, grotesque and wild,  
Access denied; and overhead upgrew  
Insuperable height of loftiest shade;  
A sylvan scene; and, as the ranks ascend  
Shade above shade, a woody theatre.

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Thus lovely seemed

That landscape, and of pure, now purer air,  
Meets the approach, and to the heart inspires  
Vernal delight and joy, able to drive  
All sadness but despair.’ P. 49.

*Elements of French Grammar, as taught at Vernon Hall.* 12mo,  
2s. Bound. Vernor and Hood. 1797.

This elementary treatise is simple and perspicuous. The rules, though concise, are comprehensive; and the examples are accurate, with some exceptions. Among the erroneous passages we may reckon that which follows: *le juge des peuples*. The grammarian, (who appears, from internal evidence, to be a native of this island) is here speaking of a king, who, he says, ought to act not only as the defender of his country, but also as the judge of his people. Only one nation being alluded to, the singular aggregate ought to have been used — *le juge du peuple*, or *de son peuple*; for the phrase,

*le juge des peuples*, would imply *the judge of nations*. The proposed change will require the alteration of other parts of the sentence *pour les rendre bons, sages, et heureux*, should be, *pour le rendre bon, sage, et heureux*.

*A Defence of the English System of Book-Keeping : or, Collier against Collier, Gofnell against Gofnell, the Analytical Reviewers against the Analytical Reviewers, Mill against Mill, and Observations on a Merchant's Letter. By E. T. Jones. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1797.*

Mr. Jones is exceedingly angry with every man who has written against his mode of book-keeping; not considering that he who writes a book lays himself open to the animadversions of others; Of all authors, indeed, he has the least reason to complain: his book was brought forward under the auspices of several leading men in trade, and met with a greater subscription than any ever published in this country. It is now in the hands of upwards of five thousand persons, all interested to adopt his system, if preferable to that in common use. Time, therefore, will stamp its decision on the merits of the work. The persons who recommended the system, doubtless have adopted it in their counting-houses; and among the subscribers many must have made a trial of its merits. Mr. Jones, therefore, need not be in such a passion. Let him stay a few years, and let him then produce the list of merchants who have used his system. Such a list will do him much greater credit than his present arguments.

One part of his work we cannot pass over in silence,—his attack upon the Analytical Reviewers, because the treatment he has received from them (whether just or unjust, it is not our business to determine) leads him to inveigh against the whole body of reviewers. Indeed, he has taken fair advantage of the prospectus of those reviewers, who have, we hope and trust, spoken of their brethren in terms deserving of the highest censure. The reviewers of books in this country are a large body of men; and in this body is at present, and has always been, the greater part of the most distinguished characters in the literary world. That they hire themselves out to booksellers, is just as true as that the lawyer hires himself out to his client, the physician to his patient, the landlord to his tenant, for a fee. Without doubt they are paid, and ought to be paid, for labour which is highly useful to the community; but the writer of this article trusts, that, in speaking for himself, he is also vindicating all his brethren, that he never felt himself dependent upon any bookseller whatsoever,—that he knew the price of his labour, and reviewed every article according to the best of his abilities, without any regard to the opinion of bookseller, printer, or author.

So far from being then of the opinion of Mr. Jones, or the Analytical Reviewers, on the writers of articles in reviews, we conceive them to be entitled to their reward, in the same manner as every other man who by his talents procures his sustenance. Mr. Jones has been highly rewarded for his labours. He has received more

for his light composition than will fall to the share of the whole body of reviewers in the course of three or four years: Let him be contented with his reward, and beware of attacking others who labour more, whose labour requires greater talents; and whose reward is less. Besides, it is not in the power of a single review to destroy his work; and reviewers, it is well known, do not act in concert. Let him compare together what is said by different reviewers; and he will seldom find them to concur in the praise of any work which does not afterwards receive the same stamp of applause from all who are capable of determining its merits. The reviewers themselves are subject in their turns to similar censure with this author: and the writer of this article recommends to him, as well as to other authors, his own practice of comparing together the judgment of reviewers, by which he is enabled frequently to correct many errors that would otherwise have escaped him.

But if we needed any argument in favour of reviewers, we should find a sufficient one in the work before us. It is a review of the opinions of several persons on an interesting subject, and labours under the misfortune that the reviewer, being too much interested in favour of his own system, wants that impartiality which should be the ground of every review. Hence his work is replete with a great deal of abuse; and a subject which ought to be the farthest possible from the heat of controversy, seems to have inflamed the author's mind as much as any one in politics or religion.

*Book-keeping reformed: or the Method by Double Entry, so simplified, elucidated, and improved, as to render the Practice easy, expeditious, and accurate. By J. H. Wicks. 4to. 8s. Boards. Longman. 1797.*

The very great success which Mr. Jones has met with in the publication of his work, has naturally excited the attention of many persons engaged in similar pursuits: and the result of that attention has been the withdrawing of some portion of that confidence which had been placed in his assertions. It must have struck every one that it was too much to assert that there was an impossibility, in his method, of passing an error; and it will become him to refute the following remark in the work before us—

‘ This circuitous mode of posting cannot be admitted to be more *simple* or *concise* than the ancient system, and the following defects shew his ledger does not contain what a merchant's book ought to contain; for, if desirous of seeing a statement of the different articles of the trade, the prime cost of articles imported, expenses upon them for duty, freight, &c. &c. — the manner they have been in part or wholly disposed of — such a statement is not to be found. How then can the selling price be properly fixed — the profits checked — or a just estimate be made at any time, of the value of the remaining property? —

‘ With respect to the *impossibility* of passing an error, we will trace the purchase and sale of the *first article only*, entered on his day-

book, and we shall find that a want of attention to the above particulars has led Mr. Jones into errors; and will admit the application of a sentence to his system which he adduced to the disadvantage of the Italian form, "that it wears the appearance of correctness, and is at the same time full of errors and false entries, made on purpose to deceive." He states, "Bought of John Antonio 40 pipes of port, at 25*l.* per pipe;" by tracing the day-book through we cannot find he pays more expences upon them for freight, duty, insurance, &c. than 750*l.* but which has not, as it ought, been carried to the first price, making the cost of the 40 pipes 1750*l.* or 43*l.* 15*s.* per pipe: when Mr. Jones takes his stock, and balances the books, he values the wine left on hand at 44*l.* per pipe, though the actual cost is but 43*l.* 15*s.*! So much for Mr. Jones's rectitude, deception, impossibility of error, &c. &c.' P. 6.

Mr. Wicks's chief improvement is in the trial balance: and from this specimen of his mode of keeping books, we have no doubt that the young men under his instructions will be well qualified to keep books, and to apply, as occasion may require, these improvements, which are to be found not only in books, but in various counting-houses. The art of keeping books is not so difficult as many imagine; but it cannot be too much cultivated in the seminaries for commercial education.

#### TO THE CRITICAL REVIEWERS.

GENTLEMEN,

As I cannot suppose you would intentionally publish an erroneous account of any work, I am inclined to think it is only necessary to point out a mistake to ensure its correction. This your criticism, in your Review for May, on a volume intitled '*A Dictionary of Surgery, &c.*' demand. It is not your observations on '*Furunculus*,' nor on the division of '*Hydrophobia*,' into two species, to which I allude: they are points of very little intrinsic importance: but the very serious charge of holding out delusive language in the treatment of '*Hydrophobia*,' by speaking 'complaisantly' of certain medicines, and not recommending the use of the knife, being unfounded, it is necessary I should refute it.

On every subject in the '*Dictionary of Surgery, &c.*' I have stated the different opinions and modes of treatment by different persons, without presuming to comment on them; this, which I did from diffidence, you have termed, I will venture to say, improperly, delusive language. I am well convinced from experience that the knife only is to be depended on in that dreadful disorder, the '*Hydrophobia*;' and in the concluding paragraph of that article it is recommended in terms as strong as any I have used through the work. After enumerating the various methods which have been suggested, you will find these words—'Probably, the best mode that can be adopted, is, immediately on the bite being given, to suck the wound well for some little time, *then cut the bitten part away,*' &c. &c. I trust you will see the propriety of correcting this oversight on your part, in your Review for June.

I remain, Gentlemen,  
Yours respectfully,  
BENJAMIN LARA,

Threadneedle-street,  
June 15, 1797.

We cannot concede the point to Mr. Lara. The extract quoted in his letter is, itself, a sufficient justification of our strictures on the article *hydrophobia*, in so far as it fails to insist on excision of the bitten part, as the only means of the patient's security.

# THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For JULY, 1797.

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*Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. Vol III\*. 4to.*  
11. 11s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

THE materials of which this volume is composed are not all of very great importance either to the literary or the scientific world; but some do very great credit both to the writers and to the society. Some instruction and entertainment may, however, be derived from the former class: and the plan of giving a short account of the deceased members, borrowed from the elogiums in the French academy, makes one part of the volume interesting always to the members, and frequently to other readers. The biographical part contains an account of sir James Hunter Blair, Dr. John Drysdale, and Adam Smith. Blair was distinguished by his improvements at Port Patrick, by enlarging the packet-boats at Donaghadee, by introducing better husbandry in that part of Scotland, and, when he was elected lord provost of Edinburgh, by the bridge over the Cowgate, and other improvements in the buildings of that town. Drysdale is said to have been a good preacher, and to have distinguished himself in the convention of Scotch ministers and elders. The account of Adam Smith has been before the public in another form, prefixed to his posthumous publications †.

In the literary class, the chief paper is the description of the plain of Troy, given in French by Mr. Chevalier: and as it has been translated by professor Dalzel, we are surprised that the society did not prefer, for the sake of its members, the translation to the original. They who doubt the existence of a town like Troy, can hardly conceive that Homer was mistaken in the general description of its supposed environs, since in other places he is found to be so exceedingly accurate. Of the tombs and ruins, in this paper so clearly ascribed to the heroes of Homer, we entertain many doubts: on the positions of the Scamander and Simois, we feel more inclined to agree with our author. The grand features of Ida naturally in-

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\* See Crit. Rev. Vol. LXX. p. 465, and Vol. I. New Arr. p. 121.

† See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XVII. p. 398.

spired him with a considerable enthusiasm; and we must pardon him for being positive in so many of his determinations. This paper, translated by Dalzel, will be interesting to the scholar, whose attachment to Homer will naturally excite him to peruse with attention the remarks of a man of taste on places familiar to him from his childish years.

‘II. An Essay upon the Utility of defining Synonymous Terms in all Languages; with Illustrations by Examples from the Latin. By John Hill, LL. D. F. R. S. Edin. and Professor of Humanity in the University of Edinburgh.’—No one can doubt of the utility of defining all terms in a language, and of marking the shades of discrimination in words which are esteemed synonymous. The attempt is continually made in every country; and the French possess a very valuable work on this subject for their own language. The great thing is to ascertain precisely the meaning of every word in the manner of the Hebrew lexicographers, then to show the acquired senses. When this work has been well performed in any language, the next will be easy and very entertaining,—to show how each of the synonymous words trenches upon the other, and how it may be distinguished. To the former part of this plan the writer has not been sufficiently attentive; and, consequently, less instruction will be derived from his remarks. To his words *rogare*, *petere*, *postulare*, *poscere*, *flagitare*, he gives just distinctions. When he makes *docere*, *erudire*, *instituere*, *imbuere*, synonymous, he forgets that as the original meaning of the word *imbuere* has nothing to do with teaching, it can never be made synonymous with it, any more than *beat* and *teach* can be called synonymous, because it is a common phrase ‘to beat a thing into the boy’s head.’ From the few instances of synonymous words in this paper, the writer is evidently well qualified to continue this work, which, however, if carried on upon the same scale, will swell to a size too great for the generality of readers.

‘III. On the Ancient Hellenes. By David Doig, LL. D.’

‘The Hellenes were not a particular race of people, nor were they denominated from Hellen, the fabulous son of Deucalion. They were a sect of idolaters, peculiarly addicted to the worship of the sun, who was, in some of the eastern dialects, called *Hel-En*, i. e. *the fountain of light*. They were found in Babylon, in Midian, in Arabia on the confines of Egypt, and more particularly in Egypt itself, where there were seminaries of learned men called Hellenes. From one of these sacerdotal seminaries, established at Thebes or Diospolis, emigrated the leaders of the colony of Heliadians, which settled in the neighbourhood of Dodona. These built the city of Hellas, and from them the canton which they possessed

was called Hellopia. They likewise built the temple and instituted the oracle of Dodona, under the protection of the Pelasgi, who had emigrated from the same quarters, and who at that time were masters of that region. As these Hellenes must have transported themselves to their new settlements on board Phœnician vessels, a goodly number of Phœnicians must have joined them, and mingled with them in Hellopia and its vicinity. Hence most of the names of persons, offices, places, &c. connected with the temple are evidently of Phœnician original. In process of time, a new colony emigrated from Hellopia into Phthiotis, a small district toward the south of Thessaly, where they built the city of Hellas, and where they still retained their original name. These new colonists brought along with them all the arts, culture, politeness, &c. which their ancestors had imported from Egypt and Phœnicia, at that period the most highly civilized countries upon earth. These new settlers, in consequence of their superiority in arts and arms, and the benefits their more eminent accomplishments enabled them to confer, easily gained the ascendant among the neighbouring Thessalians, who were at that time a race of barbarians. The prospect of sharing these advantages allured the neighbouring tribes either to join or submit to them, and rendered them ambitious of the honour of being called by their name. The original Hellenes had learned from their Egyptian countrymen to brand with the name of barbarians all who did not speak the same language with themselves. This epithet the vain-glorious Hellenes liberally bestowed upon all the neighbouring nations which were too proud or too obstinate to court their alliance. It appears from the example of the Athenians, that the dread of being branded with this epithet contributed not a little to draw the adjacent people into a confederacy with the Hellenes. The institution of the council of the Amphictyones under the auspices of the Hellenes completed their triumph; and the dread of being swallowed up by the oriental colonies which were from time to time arriving in Greece, engaged all the petty dynasties in the neighbourhood to solicit admittance into that confederacy. At first this association consisted only of twelve petty states, and reached from the southern confines of modern Thessaly to the isthmus of Corinth. When the Doræ, who had been included in the Amphictyonic league, and had consequently adopted the name of Hellenes, fell into Peloponnesus, and made themselves masters of the greatest part of that country, they communicated their name to their new subjects; so that, in process of time, the original name Graii was abandoned and forgotten, and all the tribes of the Greeks became Hellenes; a name which they retained as long as the nation existed. Hence, in process of time, all mankind came to be divided into *Ἕλληνες καὶ Βαρβάροι*, "Greeks and Barbarians." p. 151.

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Credat Judæus Apella,  
Non ego.

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'Experiments



'Experiments and Observations on the Unequal Refrangibility of Light. By Robert Blair, M.D.'—The difficulties attending every scheme to correct the errors of refracting glasses, owing to the unequal refrangibility of light, are well known to our scientific readers; and the praise bestowed on Mr. Dollond for his exertions has not been unmerited. Still the achromatic glass, if we may use the expression, has not been entirely achromatic, and the defects in it seem to be inherent in the properties of the glasses of which the whole is composed. A due reflection on these defects led the writer of this paper to make some very useful experiments, which he thus by means of the society communicates to the public: and every optician is interested in examining his conclusions. As the imperfection was in the glass of one of the lenses, he turned his thoughts to other media, and thence made experiments with various fluid media, which he thought might advantageously occupy the place of the excluded lens. The result of these experiments is clearly laid down; and in the course of them he arrived at this new truth in optics—

'That though in the refraction of a pencil of solar light, made in the confine of any medium, and a vacuum, the deep red rays are always the least refrangible, and the violet rays are always the most refrangible; yet it depends entirely on the specific qualities of the medium, which shall be the mean refrangible ray; the very same ray, which in the refraction through one medium is the mean refrangible ray, being found in others among the less refrangible rays. For it is manifest that the ray which bisects the angle formed by the most and least refrangible rays, and falls in the middle of the coloured spectrum, is to be accounted the mean refrangible ray.'

r. 38.

The limits of our work do not permit us to enter into the same prolixity with this writer in describing the experiments: but from the whole scope of discourse, drawn up in his own words, our readers will see that the foundation is laid for many useful improvements in the theory and practice of optics—

'The unequal refrangibility of light, as discovered and fully explained by sir Isaac Newton, so far stands its ground uncontroverted, that when the refraction is made in the confine of any medium whatever, and a vacuum, the rays of different colours are unequally refracted, the red-making rays being the least refrangible, and the violet-making rays the most refrangible.

'The discovery of what has been called a different dispersive power in different refractive mediums, proves those theorems of sir Isaac Newton not to be universal, in which he concludes that the

the difference of refraction of the most and least refrangible rays, is always in a given proportion to the refraction of the mean refrangible ray. There can be no doubt that this position is true with respect to the mediums on which he made his experiments; but there are many exceptions to it.

For the experiments of Mr. Dollond prove, that the difference of refraction between the red and violet rays, in proportion to the refraction of the whole pencil, is greater in some kinds of glass than in water, and greater in flint-glass than in crown-glass.

The first set of experiments above recited, prove, that the quality of dispersing the rays in a greater degree than crown-glass, is not confined to a few mediums, but is possessed by a great variety of fluids, and by some of these in a most extraordinary degree. Solutions of metals, essential oils, and mineral acids, with the exception of the vitriolic, are most remarkable in this respect.

Some consequences of the combinations of mediums of different dispersive powers, which have not been sufficiently attended to, are then explained. Although the greater refrangibility of the violet rays than of the red rays, when light passes from any medium whatever into a vacuum, may be considered as a law of nature; yet in the passage of light from one medium into another, it depends entirely on the qualities of the mediums, which of these rays shall be the most refrangible, or whether there shall be any difference in their refrangibility.

The application of the demonstrations of Hugenius to the correction of the aberration from the spherical figures of lenses, whether solid or fluid, is then taken notice of, as being the next step towards perfecting the theory of telescopes.

Next it appears from trials made with object glasses of very large apertures, in which both aberrations are corrected as far as the principles will admit, that the correction of colour which is obtained by the common combination of two mediums which differ in dispersive power, is not complete. The homogeneous green rays emerge most refracted, next to these the united blue and yellow, then the indigo and orange united, and lastly the united violet and red, which are least refracted.

If this production of colour were constant, and the length of the secondary spectrum were the same in all combinations of mediums when the whole refraction of the pencil is equal, the perfect correction of the aberration from difference of refrangibility would be impossible, and would remain an insurmountable obstacle to the improvement of dioptrical instruments.

The object of the next experiments is, therefore, to search, whether nature affords mediums which differ in the degree in which they disperse the rays composing the prismatic spectrum, and at the same time separate the several orders of rays in the same proportion. For if such could be found, the above mentioned secondary

spectrum would vanish, and the aberration from difference of refrangibility might be removed. The result of this investigation was unsuccessful with respect to its principal object. In every combination that was tried, the same kind of uncorrected colour was observed, and it was thence concluded, that there was no direct method of removing the aberration.

‘ But it appeared in the course of the experiments, that the breadth of the secondary spectrum was less in some combinations than in others, and thence an indirect way opened, leading to the correction sought after; namely, by forming a compound concave lens of the materials which produce most colour, and combining it with a compound convex lens formed of the materials which produce least colour; and it was observed in what manner this might be effected by means of three mediums, though apparently four are required.

‘ In searching for mediums best adapted for the above purpose, a very singular and important quality was detected in the muriatic acid. In all the dispersive mediums hitherto examined, the green rays, which are the mean refrangible in crown glass, were found among the less refrangible, and thence occasion the uncorrected colour which has been described. In the muriatic acid, on the contrary, these same rays make a part of the more refrangible; and in consequence of this, the order of the colours in the secondary spectrum, formed by a combination of crown-glass with this fluid, is inverted, the homogeneal green being now the least refrangible, and the united red and violet the most refrangible.

‘ This remarkable quality found in the marine acid led to complete success in removing the great defect of optical instruments, that dissipation or aberration of the rays, arising from their unequal refrangibility, which has rendered it impossible hitherto to converge all of them to one point, either by single or opposite refractions. A fluid in which the particles of marine acid and metalline particles hold a due proportion, at the same time that it separates the extreme rays of the spectrum much more than crown-glass, refracts all the orders of rays exactly in the same proportion as the glass does; and hence rays of all colours, made to diverge by the refraction of the glass, may either be rendered parallel by a subsequent refraction made in the confine of the glass and this fluid, or by weakening the refractive density of the fluid, the refraction which takes place in the confine of it and glass, may be rendered as regular as reflection, while the errors arising from unavoidable imperfections of workmanship, are far less hurtful than in reflection, and the quantity of light transmitted by equal apertures of the telescopes much greater.’ P. 68.

‘ Observations on Granite. By James Hutton, M. D., F. R. S. E.’ — Dr. Hutton pursued the granite in his native country;

country, and was fortunate enough to find its junction with the alpine strata, near the duke of Athol's house. A similar junction was discovered by him in two other places, which proved to him that granite had been in a state of fusion, and in that state had made a violent inroad on the alpine schistus, or primary strata. Hence, says he, —

‘ Granite, which has been hitherto considered by naturalists as being the original or primitive part of the earth, is now found to be posterior to the alpine schistus; which schistus, being stratified, is not itself original; though it may be considered, perhaps, as primary, in relation to other strata, which are evidently of a later date.’ P. 81.

‘ Of the Flexibility of the Brasilian Stone. By James Hut-  
ton, M. D. F. R. S. E.’ — A flexible stone! this is a paradox: but the paradox is very well solved in the paper before us, from the examination of a stone of this nature, in the possession of lord Gardenstone, and whose structure evidently resembles that of the Brasilian stone, and the marble tables in the Borgheze palace at Rome, under the name of *pietra elastica*. Where there is flexibility, the particles are not all equally united; the union takes place in some parts, and not in others. The flexibility arises ‘ from a certain mechanical construction, in which flexible plates of talc or mica are united with the granulated body of the stone.’

(To be continued.)

*Biographia Navalis; or, Impartial Memoirs of the Lives and Characters of Officers of the Navy of Great Britain, from the Year 1660 to the present Time; drawn from the most authentic Sources, and disposed in a Chronological Arrangement. By John Charnock, Esq. With Portraits, and other Engravings, by Bartolozzi, &c. 8vo. Vols. I. II. III. IV. 1l. 10s. Boards. Faulder. 1794 — 6.*

SINCE the publication of Campbell's *Lives of the Admirals*, no accurate or estimable work of this kind has made its appearance; nor does the present performance involve so remote a retrospect as the production of that writer; but, in one view, it is more comprehensive, as it includes a much greater variety of characters.

The author represents his intentions as chiefly aiming at the rescue of ‘ the characters of an incredible number of brave men from a state almost of oblivion,’ and at the exposure of ‘ those shameful attacks of party writers, whose defa-

mation and calumny have, in some instances, proved too successful.' That these intentions are worthy of praise, few will deny.

After an Introduction which treats of the naval power of Great Britain and other European states, we are presented with a sketch of the maritime history of James II. That prince has been accused of neglecting the improvement of the victory which he obtained over the Dutch in 1665, while he was yet a subject. Mr. Charnock speaks tenderly of the conduct of James on this occasion, and will not believe that any blame whatever is justly imputable to him.—The gallant sir Thomas Allen is the next officer in the list. Many obscure names are then given; interspersed, however, with those of distinguished seamen.

In the life of Herbert, earl of Torrington, the writer is eager to defend the character of a calumniated officer; nor are his efforts unsuccessful. The following extract contains his account of that engagement in which the earl was supposed to have sullied the naval glory of his country —

'The French (in June, 1690) made their appearance in the channel with a fleet of eighty-four sail of the line, besides a number of frigates, fire-ships, and small vessels. Notwithstanding their arrival was so sudden and unexpected, and their force so much superior, the earl demurred not an instant in putting to sea, rightly judging it was more for the advantage of his country to meet or attend its enemies with a fleet inferior in point of numbers, than suffer them to traverse the channel unmolested, unopposed, or unwatched. Previous to the action, and on the very verge of it, the earl was happily reinforced, first by a small division of English ships, and afterwards by the Dutch under admirals Evertzen, Callemborgh, and Vander Putten, so that his fleet, at last, consisted of fifty-six sail of the line. With this force, disproportionate as it was to that of the enemy, the earl continued to follow, preventing them, by his presence, from the power of mischief, but wisely wishing to avoid an action till his fleet should, by farther reinforcements, acquire sufficient strength to render conquest certain. This was the state of things when an express arrived from the queen, at the instigation, and by the advice, as it is said, of Russel his enemy, commanding the earl instantly to engage. He immediately took every step prudence as well as bravery could suggest to ensure all the success that could reasonably be hoped for." He convened all the flag officers, imparted to them his orders, and prepared for battle. As soon as it was light on the morning of the 30th day of June, the earl made the signal for his fleet to fall into a line. As soon as this was effected he bore away for the enemy; and at eight o'clock made the signal for close action:—the French in the mean

time (confiding in their superior numbers) prepared also for the contest. Their fleet was ranged, not, as is usually the case, in a strait line, but a curve, called by most historians (though improperly) an half moon. It is admitted, however, on all hands, their van and rear were considerably to windward of their centre, which appears to have fallen inward directly opposite to the earl's own division of the red squadron, as though the enemy had studied, with the utmost caution, to avoid him. It has been invidiously insisted on by his enemies, that his division alone was least in action: but if they had wished to establish a character for candour, they would have done well to consider the danger into which the whole fleet would have been brought by the earl's rashly bearing away into the immense bay, if the term may be allowed, formed by the French centre. Separated as the squadrons of the combined fleet were, strait as was its line in comparison with that of the French, the latter still continued to outstretch them considerably; and if the earl, listening only to the dictates of gallantry, had broke that line, by bearing in for the enemy's centre, his division might easily have been enclosed; when, if that enemy had done their duty properly, few of his ships would have been left for the future defence and protection of England. It may probably favour strongly of British spirit to agree with what was theoretically advanced by some of the British captains in that action, that if all the ships in their line had engaged as close as those of sir John Ashby's division did, the French, in all probability, would not have gained so much advantage as they did: yet, if we consider the strength of the two fleets, their situation, and the form in which they were each drawn up, we must, now time has mellowed the roughness of party prejudice, admit that such conduct could only have originated in the same rashness which induced the Dutch, who led the combined fleet, to stretch forward with a press of sail till they reached the enemy's van, although they, by that conduct, left such an interval between them and the red squadron, as in some measure, contributed to their own destruction and the joint misfortune of the whole fleet. A celebrated ingenious modern writer (sir John Dalrymple) has summed up the whole in the following short and expressive manner: "There was this difference between the admirals — Evertzen fought for glory only; but the other, trusting to the greatness of his character for glory, reflected that the safety of his country was intrusted to him." — Notwithstanding every possible advantage that might have been derived by the French from their superiority of force, it does not appear, from the best authorities, that the loss of the English was more than one ship of the line, the *Ann* of seventy guns, commanded by captain Tyrrel, and that of the Dutch six, a loss surely inferior to what might have been expected considering the great disadvantages under which the combined fleet laboured. But though the safety of the kingdom was purchased at so easy an

expence, comparatively speaking, and the armada of the French, disabled from future offensive operations, was content with the empty triumph of the combined fleets having retired before it; though it retreated itself, in a short time, to its own harbours, without venturing at any enterprise worthy the dignity of being recorded by any historians but their own: yet the people of England were not to be satisfied with what might with propriety be termed a negative victory. They thought their national dignity degraded; and disappointed in the vain hope of their admiral effecting impossibilities, joined all in the general cry of misconduct and treason, from the peasant to the prince. The court, however, assembled to take cognizance of the matter, did every justice to the merit of this brave but unfortunate man \*, and acquitted by the general voice of those, who understanding perfectly the weakness of the charge and the propriety of the answer, he sought, in retirement, that peace and tranquillity, the factious, not to say ungrateful spirits of his countrymen, appeared to wish to deprive him of.' Vol. i, p. 267.

The life of sir George Rooke (of whom a good portrait is given) is particularly copious; and that commander is justly vindicated from the censures with which the Whigs assailed him: but some of the remarks which accompany the representation of his character, call for transient animadversion. Having mentioned the political opinions of sir George, the biographer represents a Tory as 'a person zealously attached to the church, and to those principles of government under which the proper authority of kings was ever maintained in the greatest splendour, and most perfect happiness to the people.' We readily admit the inclination of the Tories for preserving the crown in high *splendour*; but it is not easy to prove that they ever were friends, except when out of power, to the *proper* (that is, limited) authority of kings, or that they ever studiously or sincerely consulted the *happiness* of the people. It is added, that 'continued feuds, dissensions, and tumults, ever grew out of those tenets which inculcated a contrary opinion. Pretended patriotism, republicanism, tu-

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\* Among other most liberal testimonies now existing of the high injury done by imputing to this noble person the smallest guilt, is an original letter, written to him immediately after the action, by the gallant sir Cloudesley Shovel, a man, whose opinion relative to such a transaction must ever be treated with the highest respect, as his character, both as a most able officer and an honest man, can never cease to be revered. After paying lord Torrington's general conduct every fair and proper tribute, he adds, in direct terms, that he was himself convinced, from every possible information he could procure on the subject, that his behaviour had been, through the whole business, as gallant as it was prudent. In short, to have acted otherwise than as he did, would have been to have disserved his country.'

mult, and rebellion, always follow each other as cause and effect.' According to this doctrine, all who are not Tories are pretended patriots, republicans, and promoters of disturbance and sedition. These insinuations are as illiberal as they are ill-founded. Undoubtedly, there are many pseudo-patriots among those who style themselves Whigs; but it is equally certain, that such pretenders to public virtue are numerous among the Tories; and it is demonstrably evident, that the principles of the latter are unfavourable to civil as well as religious liberty.

The account of sir Cloudesly Shovel contains some new particulars; but the truth of that traditional anecdote may reasonably be disputed, which states the escape of the admiral from the dangers of the sea, and his subsequent murder by an old woman, who was actuated by a desire of plunder.

Of admiral Churchill, who was the chief adviser of prince George of Denmark in maritime affairs, this character is given —

' His bravery no man could doubt: his ability in the line of his profession was always at least equal to the particular service in which he was engaged; but to say that is not to bestow on it any great encomium, as he never attained any consequential command. Considering him as a statesman it is certainly unfair to charge him solely with having caused, by his obstinacy or neglect, those misfortunes which befel the commerce of England, during the time he held an inferior part in its naval administration. Upon the whole, the clamour raised so repeatedly against him appears to have been suggested and fostered principally by his own pride, which urged him to treat, with a very unwarrantable contempt, all men whom he thought of inferior rank to himself. He was, moreover, endowed with an extraordinary degree of self-sufficiency which caused him to estimate his own abilities at a higher price than his contemporaries appeared willing to rate them at, and in all probability than they really merited. This prepossession in his own favour caused his first retirement from the service, and sunk him much in the popular opinion, which he never lived to regain.' Vol. ii. p. 48.

Those who are acquainted with the naval history of Great Britain, may recollect that sir John Norris, though he was frequently employed as an admiral, did not distinguish himself by brilliant exploits. He was not, therefore, so high in the public opinion as he deserved to be.

' Although many' (says Mr. Charnock) ' may have had the good fortune to acquire a greater share of popular applause, none have had a nobler and juster claim to public gratitude than this brave and able commander; or have been more truly entitled to the

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compassion of those who are capable of feeling for that degree of misfortune which rarely failed to attend him through life. Seamen, who are, as a body of people, in all probability the most superstitious in the world, constantly foretold a storm whenever sir John put to sea. The frequent accidents which beset the ships and squadrons under his command, the misfortunes which attended him, and which being inflicted merely by the hand of heaven, could not be warded off by any human prudence or sagacity, procured him the whimsical appellation of *fool-weather Jack*; by which foster name he was, perhaps, better known in the service than by his own proper title and title. In reviewing his public life and conduct, we cannot find a single point in which he appears liable to censure: and were we to say no more, this would, perhaps, be a sufficient degree of applause to acquire him the admiration of all considerate men. Let those, if any, who think otherwise, reflect, for a moment, on the difficulties which must have surrounded a man acting in a public capacity for sixty years; let them recollect those accidents which daily baffle the most prudential and best-founded systems; let them not forget, that public envy and personal malice are perpetually on the watch to depreciate renown and victory itself; and let them then decide, whether to die unaccused is not to have always lived worthy of applause.

‘ The incidents of war for the space of forty years succeeding the battle of Malaga, in 1704, were totally uninteresting in the scale of grand operation: in such alone are we to look for those brilliant achievements which high-sounding fame delights in publishing to the world, and preserving to our memories. These having failed, the voice of envy never ceasing to demand what could not wist, imposes herself, at last, on the world, for that candour and justice which forbid us to bestow honours which have not been truly earned. That courage and spirit of enterprize which he so frequently and happily displayed, when in the station of a private commander, would certainly have borne him through the most arduous and difficult undertakings, when moving in the most elevated sphere. And no reasonable man can doubt, but that the same glory which is so justly attached to the characters of Russel or Rooke, would have been acquired by Norris, had he been fortunate enough to have experienced the same opportunity.

‘ In the less dazzling duties of his profession, which were all that fortune put in his power to exercise, no man could be more assiduous. When commander-in-chief in the Baltic he used every possible means to procure to his country a complete knowledge of that dangerous and intricate navigation, which was, till his time, much feared, as being little understood. His abilities as a negotiator were never disputed, because in that line of service he was always most successful. His temper as a commander, armed with powers either to enforce commands or accept submission, were such

as entitled him to the praise even of those against whom he served: so that among all his enemies, he had at least the satisfaction of knowing there were none who could, with propriety, openly rank themselves under so despicable a banner.' Vol. ii. p. 361.

The compiler takes occasion to censure the author of the life of sir John Leake, for having disparaged the merits of the earl of Peterborough (who, having acted as a naval commander, has a place in this work), in the account of his conduct during the expedition to Spain, and particularly when the Spaniards were endeavouring to recover Barcelona. It may, indeed, be remarked, that the writers of single lives are generally partial, and deal more in encomium than in truth. The biographer of sir John Leake meanly wished to exalt that officer, by undermining the earl's reputation.

The life of Vernon is accompanied with several of the admiral's letters, which, though they were before in print, had become scarce. It terminates with the following character —

'Of all men who have been fortunate enough to obtain celebrity as naval commanders, few appear to have taken greater pains to sully their public fame by giving full scope to all their private feelings: yet probably, for this not very uncommon reason, he rose the greater favourite of fortune, in the minds of the people, to that pinnacle of popularity, the height of which was, indeed, great enough to dazzle and distract the firmest minds; so that to the infirmity of human nature may, in some measure, be ascribed that extravagance of conduct which might otherwise be more condemned. To say he was a brave, a gallant man, would be a needless repetition of what no person has ever presumed to deny him. His judgment, his abilities, as a seaman, are unquestioned; and his character, as a man of strict integrity and honour, perfectly unsullied. How must we lament then that points so brilliant should have their lustre dimmed by the dark shade of obstinacy, vanity, and intemperate folly! Yet when we really find these several heterogeneous qualities strangely mingled in one person, we should, thinking humanely of his failings, consider them as foils used to encrease the lustre of the virtues which are set on them, and lament that the brightest jewels which can adorn the human mind should need such extraneous aid to render them most conspicuous.' Vol. iii. p. 373.

The proceedings against admiral Byng are related with circumstantial minuteness; and it is afterwards observed, that—

'Ministers could not, perhaps, have made a worse choice than they did in appointing Mr. Byng to his last command. It ended in the destruction of his own fame and life, and tended, at least in the minds of all impartial men, to excite the highest indignation against

against those who had first appointed, and afterwards dispatched him on a service, which certainly not his force, nor it may be his abilities, were competent to the execution of. As a commander he was, as has been already observed, far from being popular. He was austere, rigid, almost to a degree of undue oppression, and proud even beyond comparison; destitute, by nature, of those conciliating qualities which create love and esteem, fortune had, on her part, denied him the means of acquiring admiration and popularity, by withholding from him all opportunities of creating to himself either. Though we cannot by any means acquiesce in what his enemies most indecently, violently, and untimely insisted on, that he was deficient in personal activity of mind, or what in plainer terms is called courage, yet we cannot but fairly confess, we do not imagine him to have possessed that ardent spirit of enterprise which might have enabled him to surmount the several difficulties that unfortunately surrounded him; the evidence adduced against him, on his trial, fully confirms and strengthens us in this opinion.' Vol. iv. p. 177.

A long account, and a high character, are given of the late sir George Pocock. The retreat of that commander from the service is attributed to the disgust and mortification of disappointment.

'Various reasons' (says our author) 'have been assigned for this apparent ill temper in so brave and good a man, the greater part of them too ridiculous for recital. The real cause, we believe, to have been a disappointed expectation he had entertained of being appointed first commissioner of the admiralty, as successor to John, earl of Egmont.' We are confirmed in this belief by an anecdote communicated to us, and which we undoubtedly believe to be genuine. When sir George was first made acquainted with the appointment of sir Charles Saunders to that high office, he immediately went to the late lord Hawke, and complained to him, in rather warm terms, of the indignity he thought offered on that occasion to the older flag-officers, who had equally distinguished themselves. Sir Edward was at that very time on the point of going out in order to wish sir Charles joy of his promotion; and when he informed sir George of his intention, the opinion of that great and good man had so much weight with him, as not only to moderate his displeasure but even to induce him to adopt a similar conduct himself. His disgust, though temporarily assuaged, was not effaced; and his former sentiments, as to the public indignity offered to his contemporaries, and what he deemed private neglect to himself, induced him to persevere in his first resolution of retiring from the service for ever. A perfect evenness of temper is, perhaps, incompatible with the frailties of human nature; but though a mind too suscep-

susceptible of indignity may be pitied, it cannot fairly be condemned.' Vol. iv. p. 405.

This work is yet unfinished; nor does the author know how many volumes will be necessary for the completion of his plan. As the remainder of the memoirs will include many officers still living, it is his intention to give 'a plain narrative of the different services in which they have been engaged,' unaccompanied with 'the smallest comment or remark.'

The execution of this biographical task is not contemptible, as far as diligence, candour, and accuracy of statement, are concerned: but the language is, occasionally, very incorrect; and a multiplicity of names are introduced for no other purpose than to inform the reader, that one person was commander of a galley, another of a pink, and a third of a fire-ship. This imperfect and useless intelligence cannot be said to form a part of the author's scheme of rescuing the characters of brave men from oblivion; for he cannot pretend to affirm that these were gallant or meritorious officers.

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*Surgical and Physiological Essays. Part III\*. By John Abernethy, F. R. S. Assistant Surgeon to St. Bartholomew's Hospital; and Lecturer in Anatomy and Surgery. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.*

THIS publication includes, 1. An Essay on Injuries of the Head. 2. A Supplement to a former Essay on the Lumbar Abscesses. 3. Experiments on Irritability. 4. Surgical Cases and Remarks.

Injuries of the head are considered in five sections; the first of which is merely introductory, and designed to show that some very material circumstances, connected with the treatment of these accidents, have been hitherto overlooked by authors. Six cases are related of persons received in the course of twelve months into St. Bartholomew's hospital, and who recovered without the application of the trephine, notwithstanding the fracture of the skull in each was attended with depression. From these, and many similar instances recorded in books, Mr. Abernethy is disposed to acquiesce in the prevailing practice, of withholding the operation till the symptoms evidently call for it, and concludes, that a slight degree of pressure does not derange the functions of the brain, for a limited time at least, after its application.

The second section treats of injuries of the head attended with an extravasation of blood upon the dura mater, and includes three cases, in which the middle artery in that membrane was lacerated. Mr. Abernethy thinks this event has

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. VIII. p. 216, and Vol. X. p. 44.

not been sufficiently attended to by practitioners, and that many have been lost for want of an early discovery of it, and a speedy perforation of the bone, to prevent its occasioning a fatal pressure on the brain —

‘ Every surgeon’ (says he) ‘ must acknowledge that it would be a very desirable thing to ascertain when blood is effused between the dura mater and the skull; for if the extravasation has happened in the more interior parts, a surgical operation is not likely to afford relief. Now, if the extravasation which compresses the brain, be situated immediately beneath the bone, I think there are signs by which it will be disclosed; and as sufficient notice has not been taken of these, I wish particularly to call the attention of surgeons to them.

‘ I have already said, that, unless one of the large arteries of the dura mater be wounded, the quantity of blood poured out will probably be inconsiderable; and the slight depression of the brain which this occasions, may not be attended with any peculiar symptoms; or perhaps it may occasion some stupor, or excite an irritation, disposing the subjacent parts to become inflamed: but both these effects will gradually abate, nor will any inflammation ensue, if proper means are taken to prevent it. It is indeed highly probable, that, in many cases, which have done well without an operation, such an extravasation has existed. But if there be so much blood on the dura mater as materially to derange the functions of the brain, the bone, to a certain extent, will no longer receive blood from within; and by the operation performed for its exposure, the pericranium must have been separated from its outside. I believe that a bone so circumstanced will not be found to bleed; and I am certain it cannot, with the same freedom and celerity as it does when the dura mater remains connected with it internally. I need hardly say, that, in the cases which I have related, there was not the least hæmorrhage. But it is right to mention, that I have also twice been able, by attending to the want of hæmorrhage from the outside of the cranium, to ascertain the extent to which the dura mater was detached within; and very frequently, when symptoms appeared to demand a perforation of the skull, I have seen it contra-indicated by the hæmorrhage from the bone, and, as the event has proved, rightly.

‘ When the bone has remained long bare, the case may become perplexing. I once scraped a portion of the cranium which had been some time denuded, and found that it bled in such a manner, as sufficiently to point out the adhesion of the dura mater, and of course the inutility of employing the trephine.

‘ Where the extravasation of the dura mater is but small, it will probably not require any operation. A slight hæmorrhage from the bone, which may happen from the anastomosing of the vessels within its substance, will not, in this case, lead to any injurious error.

But

But from what I have observed, I am inclined to believe, that even a small effusion of blood will diminish the hæmorrhage from the superincumbent bone.

‘ Mr. Pott had an idea, that the bone would perish when the dura mater was detached for a considerable space from its inside; and some cases which he has related, seem to favour this opinion: but many other cases to be met with in authors, and many which have occurred to my observation, prove that the opinion was not well founded. Indeed we cannot suppose that the bone would perish from this cause; for it still receives blood, not only from the anastomosing of vessels within its substance, but also from the pericranium externally; and the success which has of late attended the operations for aneurism in the lower limbs, shews that parts of great bulk and vascularity will continue to live when their usual supply of blood is very much diminished. If, however, the dura mater should be detached for a considerable extent from the inside of the skull, at the same time that the pericranium should also be stripped from its outside, I am inclined to believe that a portion of the bone would, in that case, die and exfoliate.’ P. 32.

In the third section are two cases of fungus of the brain, or, as it has been called, *hernia cerebri*. Of these fungous tumours the author speaks in the following terms:—

‘ Their formation seems to proceed from an injury done to a part of the brain by concussion or contusion, which has terminated in a diseased state of the vessels, similar to what occurs in apoplexy. The morbid state increasing, one or more vessels give way, and an effusion of blood into the substance of the brain ensues, which, if the skull were entire, would probably occasion apoplexy, but, where there is a deficiency of bone that allows it to expand, presses the surface of the brain and its meninges through the vacant space. The dura mater soon ulcerates, and the tumour pushing through the openings, now increases with a rapidity proportioned to that with which the hæmorrhage takes place within. At last, the pia mater, and the stratum of the brain which cover the effused blood, are so extended as to give way, and the blood oozes out and coagulates. — Thus the quick growth, and all the other phenomena observable in these tumours, are satisfactorily accounted for.

‘ It seems probable that similar injuries at other times give rise to the formation of abscesses in the substance of the brain, which are not easily ascertained, and which generally occasion the death of the patient.’ P. 45.

The plan of treatment, where no bad symptoms supervene, or where these disappear on setting the tumour free from the confinement of the dura mater, is recommended to be simply that of avoiding irritating applications and external pressure;

and, in the event of inordinate growth of the fungus, paring it down occasionally with a knife.

‘But’ (says Mr. Abernethy) ‘if the tumour continues to increase, and if the patient suffers a train of bad symptoms, apparently arising from irritation and pressure made on the brain, some further attempt to relieve him seems to be required. Under these circumstances, we have reason to suspect that the coagulum, from want of room to protrude, is enlarging internally; or that by plugging up the orifice in the bone, it prevents the escape of some fluid collected within the cranium. The obvious mode of relief here appears to be, to enlarge the opening in the bone in proportion to the extent and increase of the tumour.’ Many surgeons have objected to the removal of much of the cranium, lest protrusions of this kind should ensue; but it is evident that these tumours arise from an injury and consequent disease of a part of the brain, the event of which must be more fatal if the bone was entire. A large removal of bone was formerly a frequent event; but a protrusion of this kind very seldom took place.

‘But although, by thus allowing a free escape to the effused blood, we may prevent the injurious effects of its pressure on the brain, yet the degree of hæmorrhage may endanger the life of the patient.’

‘The quantity of blood effused will depend on the magnitude of the vessels, or on their disposition to bleed. As the disease is generally situated not far beneath the surface of the brain, there is less risk of its proceeding from the former cause. If it arises from the latter, it is very likely that the distention caused by the confinement of the effused blood would irritate the vessels, and keep up their disposition to hæmorrhage; therefore the treatment already recommended is likely to diminish it. But should the quantity of the hæmorrhage seem to threaten the life of the patient, I should think it most proper to take away the coagulum, and to expose the cavity in the brain, in order to learn whether suffering some sudden loss of blood to take place, together with the exposure of the bleeding vessels, might not produce a beneficial change, and a cessation of the hæmorrhage. I am induced to propose this mode of conduct, from reasoning founded on analogy; for in other parts of the body a hæmorrhage will sometimes continue, notwithstanding a considerable pressure made by a large quantity of coagulum, together with that which the resistance arising from the closure of the external opening, and that which is occasioned by the dressings, conjointly produce. Yet, upon exposing the bleeding surface, the hæmorrhage will cease, and never afterwards be renewed.

‘I am still further induced to propose this plan of treatment, because I do not perceive any other which carries with it a probability of success. The impropriety of attempting to restrain the hæmorrhage by pressure has been shewn; ligatures cannot be ap-

plied, and styptics are known, by experience, to be dangerous.'  
p. 47.

The effects of concussion are considered by our author in the fourth section. Two cases are selected, to show what appear to him the common consequences of this injury, and which he thinks ought to guide us principally in the treatment. He says —

'The whole train of symptoms following a concussion of the brain, may, I think, be properly divided into three stages. The first is, that state of insensibility and derangement of the bodily powers which immediately succeed the accident. While it lasts, the patient scarcely feels any injury that may be inflicted on him. His breathing is difficult, but in general without stertor; his pulse intermitting, and his extremities cold. But such a state cannot last long; it goes off gradually, and is succeeded by another, which I consider as the second stage of concussion. In this, the pulse and respiration become better, and though not regularly performed, are sufficient to maintain life, and to diffuse warmth over the extreme parts of the body. The feeling of the patient is now so far restored, that he is sensible if his skin be pinched; but he lies stupid, and inattentive to slight external impressions. As the effects of concussion diminish, he becomes capable of replying to questions put to him in a loud tone of voice, especially when they refer to his chief suffering at the time, as pain in the head, &c.; otherwise, he answers incoherently, and as if his attention was occupied by something else. As long as the stupor remains, the inflammation of the brain seems to be moderate; but as the former abates, the latter seldom fails to increase; and this constitutes the third stage, which is the most important of the series of effects proceeding from concussion.' p. 59.

Our author's objections to the indiscriminate use of Stimulants, both in the first and second stages, appear to be well founded; and his endeavours to point out the signs by which the effects of compression and concussion may be distinguished, are also important.

In the fifth and last section, inflammation of the pia mater is considered, and some caution recommended to avoid the error of confounding the symptoms with those which immediately arise from concussion.

'The symptoms' (Mr. Abernethy observes) 'which chiefly characterize the complaint, are those of an increase of sensibility; the pupils of the eyes are contracted; the patient often withdraws his arm on being touched, and his pulse and tongue denote general as well as local inflammation. It seems of the utmost importance, that those means which in general cure inflammation, should be pro-



cuted very vigorously at the commencement of this complaint, since otherwise, although they may check, they will not overcome it. Large blood-lettings, brisk purging, and extensive counter-irritation by blisters, ought to be employed at the very commencement; for, if omitted, then the disease will become established, and the powers of the body will soon be too much sunk to admit of the same active treatment at a later period.' p. 74.

This part of our author's work concludes with two cases of disease of the bone and dura mater, accompanied with some reflections on the propriety of perforating the bone in those instances where a dead portion of it is in danger of irritating the dura mater.

To this subject succeeds a Supplement to an Essay on the Lumbar Abscess, noticed in Vol. VIII. p. 216, of our Review. To what we have there said, we shall only add, that the cases adduced by Mr. Abernethy abundantly prove the propriety of adopting the valvular opening in almost all instances; and we have no doubt but a much larger proportion of lives will be saved by that means than by any that have heretofore been employed by practitioners. To show indeed that some reliance is to be placed on this mode of practice, our author introduces the subject with the following account of the person on whom this method was first practised. He says —

\* It may not be improper previously to mention, that George Tucker, the person on whom I first tried this method of discharging the matter without leaving a permanent opening in the cyst, and whose body I have, not long ago, had an opportunity of examining, never had the least return of his complaint. After quitting the hospital, he travelled over a considerable part of England for two years, during which time he lived very irregularly. When I next saw him, he had come up from Portsmouth to get into St. Bartholomew's Hospital, on account of an ulcer on the prepuce, accompanied with erysipelatous inflammation and sloughing; for which he was admitted, and soon got well. In relating his case, I have said that he had a constant cough, and probably diseased lungs. This opinion has since been verified; for, about a year and a half ago, he was seized with hæmoptysis, of which he died. When I opened the body in order to inspect the seat of his former complaint, I found some difficulty in raising the peritonæum from the psoas and quadrati lumborum muscles, owing to a thickened state of the cellular substance connecting these parts; but the alteration was so inconsiderable, that I believe it might have passed without notice in the ordinary dissection of the body. — The spine had never been in the least diseased.' p. 87.

Out of eight cases, where the disease appears to have terminated,

minated, three or four seem to have been successful; or at least afford some reason to conclude, that much good will result from this mode of treatment. A favourable event, indeed, it appears, is not to be expected where the vertebræ are diseased; most of the unsuccessful cases having failed from this cause. In two cases, where the quantity of matter was too small for a repetition of the operation, electricity was employed to promote absorption; and some attempts were also made to impede the suppurative process by repeated vomits of vitriolated zinc and copper. Of electricity, it is observed —

‘The two last cases point out to notice a remedy that is likely to be of much advantage in the future treatment of lumbar abscesses. My experience of it, however, has not yet enabled me to determine how far it may be generally beneficial. In one instance where I employed it after the abscess had been once punctured, it kept the matter from collecting for a long time; but the patient growing tired of the confinement, and apprehensive lest the lancet should be again employed, left the hospital without my knowledge. — Of another, and somewhat analogous disease, in which it was tried, though not with complete success, I shall here relate the particulars; first remarking, that all the observations which I have made on electricity applied to diseased parts, lead me to conclude, that it acts as a stimulus, which has the peculiar effect of accelerating that process which happens to be going on at the time. — Thus, in some states of inflammation, it hastens suppuration, whilst in others it promotes dispersion. We should therefore always endeavour, previous to the use of this remedy, to bring the tumour or abscess into that state in which its progress is stopped, and in which, perhaps, it is rather inclined to recede; and by this rule I have been guided in the application of this remedy to lumbar abscesses.

‘I have also been attentive to proportion the number and strength of the vibrations to the effect which they appeared to produce on the abscess: their operation seemed to be most beneficial when they occasioned a kind of irritation or slight uneasiness in the part for a short time after their application. But if this sensation amounted to pain, or if it was of too long continuance, I then supposed that the stimulus had been employed in too great a degree.’ P. 117.

We shall conclude our remarks on this portion of the work with the following extract —

‘When I first began to open lumbar abscesses in the method I have recommended in this and my former Essay on the subject, I was extremely solicitous to do it in such a manner that the inner part of the aperture might act like a valve, to prevent any matter from oozing out, so as to keep the orifice open. I have found, however, that great care in this respect was quite unnecessary. I

now make the opening with very little obliquity, and by using a broad abscess lancet, the wound is generally sufficient to give a discharge to those coagula which are so frequently found in the matter. I always completely empty the abscess, and then bring the lips of the orifice together by means of lint and sticking-plaster, as after the operation of phlebotomy; and over these a compress and bandage are applied. I dress the wounds every second day, and of late have found little difficulty in healing them, though many of them granulate before they completely unite. The only troublesome circumstance that has lately occurred to me, has been an enlargement of the lymphatic glands on the front of the thigh, at the place where the abscess has been opened.

‘ I should not have been so particular in describing what may, to some, appear unnecessary minutiae, had I not known instances where this mode of treatment was completely frustrated from want of attention to them. — With regard to the time of repeating the operation, it must be regulated entirely by the circumstances of the case; the matter collecting much faster in some persons than in others. It is best, I think, to wait until the integuments are sufficiently elevated to allow of a puncture being made in them without any hazard of wounding the parts underneath. — Many patients bear even the first discharges without any loss of strength, notwithstanding the quantity of matter evacuated is very considerable; and almost all that I have seen, improve in health under the subsequent ones. The great disturbance that ensues, when, either by accident or design, a permanent opening is made in a lumbar abscess, should render surgeons extremely anxious to avoid such an occurrence altogether, if possible, or, at least, to delay it for a considerable time: and although the danger and the sufferings of the patient, when the abscess is opened, will be much greater where there is disease of the vertebræ; yet, as we had an opportunity of observing in the third case, this caution cannot be disregarded with safety, even when there is no reason to suspect any morbid condition of the spine.

‘ The great benefit derived from occasional emetics and electricity, encourages me to hope that many of these abscesses may be dispersed without any permanent exposure of their cavity, and that thus the patient may escape the sufferings and hazard to which such an operation necessarily exposes him.

‘ Where the vertebræ are sound, the disturbance excited by opening the abscess will in general subside gradually, and the wound will at last become indolent; in which state it may remain for a considerable time before it entirely heals, but without affecting the patient's constitution. Perfect quietude seems indispensably necessary in the irritable state of this disorder. I have thought issues very useful in some cases; but in others I could not perceive much advantage derived from them. A solution of opium injected, in one case, seemed beneficial, though it did not ascend above Poupart's ligament.

ligament. From reflecting that the state of the constitution follows, and corresponds with, that of the abscess, I am strongly inclined to believe, that injections may be useful, in preventing the cyst, when it has become open, from acquiring that morbid condition which induces the hectic fever. In the records of former practice, we read of many extensive abscesses, into which irritating injections were daily thrown. According to the ideas which now prevail among surgeons, the additional irritation excited by these, would be supposed to create great mischief; yet, we are told that these patients recovered perfectly, and perhaps for the very reason I have suggested, viz. because the abscess was prevented from falling into the peculiar morbid state which induces hectic fever.' P. 128.

As far as we have now proceeded in our review of the work before us, we find no reason to avoid a repetition of those commendations to which we thought Mr. Abernethy's former labours generally entitled. What he has offered is unquestionably deserving the attention of practitioners, and may eventually tend to the improvement of the art. But we are compelled nevertheless to qualify our approbation of what remains of the work, in so far as it appears to be incomplete, to want importance, and to have unnecessarily swelled the bulk of the volume.

The part most liable to these objections is the next in order — Experiments on Irritability. The author indeed acknowledges —

'The event of these experiments, however, imparts no new information; it only tells us what we knew before, — that azotic, carbonic, and hydrogenous gasses are, in different degrees, injurious to life; and that oxygen gas, by itself, is not more beneficial than common air. The experiments shewing the long continuance of life and action in muscles placed under an exhausted receiver, are, however, worthy of notice; as they seem to prove, that the cause of irritability, when once it has been formed, does not require the assistance of external matter for the performance of its functions; and that it is less susceptible of change in this situation, than when exposed to the influence of the different gasses, which perhaps impair its vigour, or conduct it away from the animal fibre.' P. 145.

Under the head of Surgical Cases, the author has given observations and cases of the operation for the aneurism, emphysema, and the use of mercurial fumigations; but for these we refer our readers to the work itself, which concludes with the following apology —

'The information which the author of these Essays had acquired

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in the practice of his profession, and which he has in these pages submitted to the public, was not obtained without labour; nor could it have been acquired unless he had possessed opportunities which do not fall to the lot of many surgeons. These observations were therefore published from a belief that the knowledge, which he esteemed of some value, might be likewise considered to by others, who had not the same means of obtaining it — Continuation of employment of other kinds has prevented the author from paying that attention to the finishing of these papers, which the public have a right to expect: he however felt, that if their publication was postponed, other engagements and pursuits would occupy his attention, and render him less capable of offering them even in their present state.' p. 207.

*The Chace, a Poem. By William Somerville, Esq. A new Edition. To which is prefixed a Critical Essay, by J. Aikin, M. D. Small 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1796.*

WE are perpetually seeking after novelty in works of literature, when perhaps we suffer to fall into neglect many productions better calculated to instruct or amuse us, than the ephemeral publications which crowd the press: and it is doing a real service to the public, to recall their notice to works, of which, some from their bulk, others from their smallness, and others from the extraneous matter mixed with them, have ceased to attract the attention they once excited. *Somerville's Chace* well entitles him to an honourable place amongst our minor poets. The subject, Dr. Aikin observes, 'possesses the two great requisites of a didactic poem (the purpose of which is not to *teach*, but to *amuse* under the semblance of teaching) interest and variety.'

'As far' (he says) 'as instinctive propensities can be attributed to man, it may be asserted that he has ever, in almost all the different states of society in which he has been placed, exhibited a native passion for the chace; and he may, perhaps, be denominated a hunting animal, with as much propriety as the dog or the panther,' p. 2.

The subject of the chace, likewise, affords a variety, that, with the assistance of digressive and incidental matter, might afford scope for a poem, interesting even to those who are not practically attached to the sports of the field. The poem of Somerville, however, it is remarked —

— 'is much less a philosophical than a descriptive one. The writer

writer was a real, not a speculative, sportsman; and it was not till fixed to his elbow-chair by infirmity, that he thought of writing on the chace, instead of following it. Classically educated, but, as it appears, with a mind not remarkably opened by habits of investigation, or elevated by images of the fancy, he has produced a piece, the principal excellence of which consists in pictures drawn from the life, and animated by the warm genuine feelings of the painter. The language, the sentiments, the incidents, all display perfect acquaintance with the scenes described; and in hurrying from narration to narration, with little interposition of digressive and fanciful matter, he seems rather borne directly onward by his ardour for a favourite subject, than bounded by incapacity for excursive flights.' p. 6.

The essayist proceeds to give a clear and accurate analysis of the whole poem, interspersed with that liberal kind of criticism which delights in praising, but with judgment and discrimination. Comparing Somerville with our great descriptive poet, Thomson, he says—

'If any one compares the finished picture of a chace by Somerville, with the draughts by Thomson, formed upon general ideas, and interspersed with sentiment and reflection, he will be sensible of the great difference between writing upon a topic merely as belonging to a general subject, and indulging in a favourite theme, which dwells on the mind in the vivid colours of memory and affection. It would be scarce possible even in prose to describe the hunting of the hare with more exactness than is here done; yet the language throughout is sufficiently elevated, and some of the passages are truly poetical. Such is that, describing the music of the chace, and its fascinating effect upon all the hearers; well exemplifying the universality of that passion which urges men to partake of the hunter's pastime. Though there are touches in the representation which may call forth the emotions of pity in a feeling mind, yet the poet has judiciously refrained from enforcing them by moral sentiment and reflection, which would act in contradiction to his purpose. The effect of the opposite conduct of Thomson, in converting a joyous scene into a melancholy one, is obvious.' p. 12.

The poetical character of Somerville is thus judiciously summed up—

'He is strictly and almost solely a descriptive poet; and his talent lies in delineating actual scenes with fidelity and spirit, adorning them with the beauties of diction, but leaving them to act upon the imagination by their own force, without aid from the creations of fancy. In classical allusion he is not deficient, but it is of the more common kind; and little occurs in his writings that indicates a mind

a mind inspired by that exalted enthusiasm which denotes the genius of superior rank. His versification is generally correct and well varied, and evidently flows from a nice and practised ear. His language is well suited to his subjects, rising and sinking with them, and free from that stiffness and affectation so commonly attendant upon blank verse. It more resembles that of Armstrong, than of Thomson or Akenfide. Some of his other poems shew him to have had a strong perception of the ludicrous; and in this, too, traits of humour are discernible. On the whole, Somerville occupies a respectable place among our native poets; and his *Chace* is probably the best performance upon that topic which any country has produced." P. 24.

We cannot help observing that the essayist, how much soever he may admire the spirited description of the *chace*, and of the *other animals* with which it is conversant, seems to entertain no high idea of our rural Nimrods themselves, among whom, he says, the admirers of a *poem*, even on the *chace*, are not to be looked for.

*Repertory of Arts and Manufactures, Vol. III. (Continued from Vol. XIX. New Arr. p. 170.)*

**L** SPECIFICATION of the patent granted to Richard Williams, M. D. for his invention of a mortar or stucco.—It consists of sand, lime, water, and a proportion of cheese or curd. We cannot add that we wish the doctor success in converting the means of nourishment into those of ornament.

**II.** Patent granted to Mr. Lionel Lukin, of Long Acre, for his improvement in the construction of boats and small vessels, so that they will neither overset nor sink.—This important contrivance consists in projecting gunnels of light materials, so covered as not to absorb the water; or these gunnels may be made hollow and water-tight. They must be so placed as not to impede the action of the oars, nor the passage of the vessel through the water in sailing.

**III.** Patent granted to Mr. John Poulain, for his invention of a new composition for tinning or lining all vessels made of copper, brass, iron, or other metals.—The composition consists of a mixture of grain tin, good malleable iron, *platina*, *silver*, and *gold*!

**IV.** Description of a pendulum of a new kind; invented by the Rev. J. Pine.

**V.** Account of a spontaneous inflammation.—This took place in a bale of candle-wick yarn, made from hemp, which had been accidentally soaked with oil.

**VI.** Ac-

**VI.** Account of a spontaneous inflammation which happened in India. By Isaac Humphries, Esq. From the Transactions of the Royal Society of London. — The circumstances in this instance were similar to those in the preceding. Some cotton-cloth was accidentally soaked with linseed oil, and consequently took fire. These two accounts evince the necessity of keeping oil in such a manner that it cannot come in contact with linen or cotton.

**VII.** Account of a chamber lamp-furnace. By Dr. Percival. From the Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy.

**VIII.** Observations on pruning orchards, in addition to those already printed by Thomas Skip Dyot Bucknall, Esq. of Conduit street. From the Transactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. — In this paper Mr Bucknall insists on the good effects of the medication recommended in the preceding paper. It contains also many good observations on the planting and management of orchards. Orchards, he says, ought to be open to the south, and closed or sheltered towards the north, east, and west. It appears to us that the open side of the orchard ought to point towards the south-east, as that is a particularly favourable aspect for fruit. By this alteration the orchard would not lose much of the influence of the sun, and would enjoy the advantage of being in some measure screened from the moist and strong winds which often blow from the south-west.

**IX.** Observations on watering meadows. From the General View of the Agriculture of the County of Wilts; drawn up for the consideration of the Board of Agriculture, by Mr. Thomas Davies.

**X.** Description of a mill to grind potatoes; and of the method of preparing starch or flour from them. By M. Baugé. With two plates. From the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences at Paris.

**XI.** Patent of Mr. Francis Blaikie, for his invention of an ingredient to be used as a substitute for gum, in thickening of colours for printing. — It is made by boiling flax-seed in water.

**XII.** Patent of the right hon. Scymour Conway, for his method of applying the heat of coke ovens to a variety of purposes.

**XIII.** Patent of Edmund Cartwright, for his invention of bricks of particular forms.

**XIV.** Farther considerations on the Pangraph.

**XV.** Observations on spontaneous inflammations. — The explication of the causes of spontaneous inflammations in certain substances and compositions must ever be an object of conse-



consequence to the magistracy; as by discovering the causes of such phænomena, the suspicion of setting fire to buildings may frequently be avoided, and many an innocent person saved from capital punishment. The property of spontaneous inflammation is well known to belong to the different species of pyrophori; but in this paper we have an account of many other substances, in common use, which are liable to the same accident. Parched rye, bran in contact with linen, has taken fire, woollen stuffs in a moist state, and perhaps when dry, dressed wool, wet hay, corn and madder, and at times wet meal and malt, sail-cloth smeared with oil, hemp, &c. A fire was kindled on board the frigate Maria, which lay near the island of Cronstadt. Strong suspicion took place that the fire was occasioned by incendiaries; but by the sagacity of the late empress, it was discovered to be owing to a mixture of Russian lamp-black, moistened with hemp-oil varnish, wrapt up in matting. This account is contained in a letter to the editors, from the rev. W. Tooke.

XVI. Description of a crane for wharfs.

XVII. Description of an apparatus to be added to a common pump, to answer the purpose of a fire-engine.

XVIII. Conclusion of Mr. Davies's observations on watering meadows.

XIX. Experiments on the means of improving the vessels used in cooking. By Mr. Sven Rinman, Member of the Royal Academy of Stockholm. From the Transactions of the said Academy.—The author recommends an enamel made of an equal quantity of white semi-transparent fluor spar and of gypsum. The subject, however, is not concluded.

XX. Patent granted to Mr. Thomas Connop, for his invention of a machine for batting cotton or wool.

XXI. Patent of Mr. John Miles, for his invention of making lamps in different forms, so as to give perfect light, though ever so much agitated.

XXII. Patent granted to Messrs. Roberts and Dight, for their new method of painting.—This process is too long for insertion; the superiority of it consists in the preservation of transparency.

XXIII. Description of a method of preventing injury to the health of those employed in carding cotton. In a letter to the editors. With a plate.—The author observes, that the great quantity of films and dust, which fly off in this operation, are evidently hurtful. The simplest remedy for this evil, which occurred to him, was the inclosing the cards in such a manner as to keep the flyings from the people. Such parts of the cards, however, as require constant attention, must

must necessarily be left exposed. The humane author of this paper, whose name is not mentioned, has put the idea in practice, and finds it not only beneficial to the health of the manufacturers, but profitable, by more effectually collecting the flyings, which may be applied to some purposes with advantage. — It is to be lamented that while the encouragers of war and slavery cannot be easy without obtruding themselves on the notice of the public, men studious of general benefit should conceal their names. This fact seems to prove that no men feel so certain of gratitude, as those who employ their talents in supporting abuses.

XXIV. An attempt to obtain and preserve practical standards, for adjusting in future the weights and measures of this kingdom. By Samuel More, Esq. Secretary to the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. From the Transactions of the said Society. — This author advises weights of agate to be kept at different places by way of standards. With respect to measures, he would have them referred to the sides of a cubic vessel, capable of containing a quantity of soft river water, equal in weight to sixty-two pounds and a half, avoirdupois weight, at sixty degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer. Surely distilled water must be preferable to river water, which no doubt varies in different places. The author would have the length of one side of such a vessel taken as the standard foot.

XXV. Description of a Fire-engine, on a new construction. By Mr. Benjamin Dearborn.

XXVI. Experiments and observations on the dissolution of metals in acids, and their precipitations; with an account of a new compound acid menstruum. By James Keir, Esq. From the Transactions of the Royal Society. — Mr. Keir finds that a mixture composed of nitre, dissolved in oil of vitriol, is capable of dissolving silver easily, while it does not affect copper, iron, lead, regulus of cobalt, gold, and platina. Dilution, as might be expected, altered the properties of this composition.

XXVII. Conclusion of Mr. Rinman's experiments on the means of improving the vessels used in cooking. — These experiments are worthy of attention, but are so numerous that we cannot give even their general result.

XXVIII. Patent granted to Mr. John Tucker, of Wickham, tanner. — Mr. Tucker, by means of the gentle application of heat, asserts that he can produce leather, not only of a superior quality, but can perform the operation in a much shorter time.

XXIX. Patent granted to Mr. William Fulton, for some mechanical improvements.

XXX. Patent of Mr. Richard Fishwick, for his invention

of a new method of making white lead. — The difference between the method of this patentee, and that commonly employed, is the substituting tanner's bark for horse litter, in applying heat to the ingredients. As this alteration discloses no new principle, we doubt how far its author is entitled to the privileges of a patent.

XXXI. Patent of Mr. Taylor for his invention of a method of casting iron vessels of a particular form.

XXXII. Description of a simple instrument for taking perpendicular heights by means of an angle of 45 degrees.

XXXIII. On irrigation, or watering land; with observations on the use of reservoirs for flood-waters.

XXXIV. Account of a new construction of some parts of clocks.

XXXV. Continuation of Mr. Keir's experiments and observations on the dissolution of metals in acids, and their precipitations.

XXXVI. Experiments to discover what kind of steel is most fit for receiving the magnetic power. By M. Briffon.

XXXVII. Description of the machine for kneading dough, used at the public baking houses of Genoa. With a plate.

XXXVIII. Patent granted to Henry Cort, for his improvements in the manufacture of iron.

XXXIX. Patent of Mr. James Playfair, for his new method of constructing locks for navigable canals. With two plates.

XL. Patent granted to Mr. William Watts, of Bristol, for his invention of making small shot solid throughout, without the imperfections which other shot usually have on their surface —

‘ To all to whom these presents shall come, &c. Now know ye, that, in compliance with the said proviso, I the said William Watts do hereby declare, that my said invention of making small shot solid throughout, perfectly globular in form, and without the dimples, scratches, and imperfections, which other shot, heretofore manufactured, usually have on their surface, is performed in the manner following; that is to say, take twenty hundred-weight of soft pig-lead, (more or less, according to the slag, or poisoned lead, intended to be made,) melt it in an iron pot; then take about a peck of coal-ashes, or dirt, strew the same round the edge of the pot, upon the surface of the metal, leaving the middle of the metal naked; put in upon the metal which is uncovered with the ashes, or dirt, about forty pounds weight of white or yellow arsenic; then cover the pot with an iron cover, and close the edges of the cover, all round the pot, with mortar, clay, or dirt, to prevent the arsenic from evaporating; keep a good fire under the pot for three or four

hours, so as to have the lead red-hot, that the arsenic may be mixed with the lead, and the lead thereby be fully poisoned; then take off the cover, and skim the metal; then ladle it off into moulds or sand, to cool in bars or ingots, and which when cool is called slag, or poisoned lead. Then, take another twenty hundred-weight of soft pig-lead, (according to the quantity of shot intended to be made,) melt the same in an iron pot; then take, about three-quarters of an hundred-weight of scum from clean pig-lead, put it into the pot, and let the same melt; when melted put in one of the bars or ingots of slag, or poisoned lead: and, when melted, with a small ladle take some of the metal out of the pot, and drop it in water from the height of about two feet; if the shot be not round, put in more of the slag or poisoned lead, till you find it drops round; then skim the metal, and put the scum into an iron or copper frame, full of holes, according to the size of the shot intended to be made; squeeze the scum, while soft in the frame, with the ladle with which it was taken out of the pot; then take the metal out of the pot, and pour it into the frame, over the surface of the scum, and let it drop through the frame into water. If for the smallest shot, the frame must be at least ten feet above the water, and for the largest shot about one hundred and fifty feet, or more, above the water, and so in proportion; according to the size of the shot intended to be made. In witness whereof, &c. p. 313.

**XLf.** Patent for a method of beautifying wood.

**XLII.** Description of a method of vein-marbling, and staining silk, linen, cotton, paper, &c. In a letter to the editors, from Mr. Samuel Toplis, of Gainborough.

‘ Make a middling thick size, or paste, of flour and water, to which add a little powdered alum, and then boil it in the manner of glover’s, &c. paste. Put some of the size, when cool, into several pots; and mix with it such kind of colours, or other matters used in staining and dying, as are had in esteem. Have ready a painter’s brush to each pot, and, with any of the brushes, spread a quantity of the forementioned coloured size, *very even*, on a flat piece of marble, or other kind of smooth stone, or on a smooth board, or a table, according to the length and width of the piece of silk, linen, cotton, or sheet of paper. On the coloured size, thus spread, lay a strong plate of glass, or one of tin, or copper, or a thin piece of board; pressing the plate (of whatever sort) gently with the hand on every part. Raise the plate, by lifting up one end; and it will be found veined, in every direction, by the adhesiveness of the size: immediately lay the plate, thus prepared, on the silk, linen, or other article, and with the hand again gently press on every part of the plate, which will vein or marble the silk, linen, &c. with the same figures as were on the sized plate. If the plate of glass (which is preferable, but exceptionable on ac-

count of its brittleness) be not pressed too hard, a second impression, with a beautiful sort of smaller-sized veins, may be had from the first colouring; and, if two different colours are desired on the same surface, there needs only a repetition of the process with the size, containing staining ingredients, and the other favorite colouring substances. I may add, that a neat sort of tortoiseshell appearance, and a great variety of expressive figures, may be produced this way, as also by various actions of the fingers upon the plate, before the size loses its moisture, and likewise by many times folding the silk, linen, or other material of flexible texture.' p. 319.

**XLIII.** Description of a method of sweeping narrow chimneys. — The method here recommended, and which is found to answer perfectly well, is the drawing a thick bush up and down the chimney.

**XLIV.** Conclusion of Mr. Keir's experiments and observations on the dissolution of metals in acids, &c. — We are sorry that Mr. Keir continues to use the old chemical nomenclature, which is now almost universally thought to be an unmeaning jargon.

**XLV.** Description of a mercurial level, invented by Alexander Keith, Esq. With a plate.

**XLVI.** Description of a pentrough, for equalising the water falling on water wheels. By George Quayle, Esq.

**XLVII.** Method of preparing Naples yellow. By M. Couret.

**XLVIII.** Observations on the mechanism of felting. By M. Monge.

**XLIX.** Patent granted to Mr. Henry Cort, for improvements in the manufacture of iron.

**L.** Patent of Mr. Joseph Bramah for several improvements and additions to the fire-engine originally invented by him.

**LI.** Patent granted to Mr. Samuel Hooper, for his invention of a new method of making and manufacturing printing paper.

**LII.** Patent granted to Mr. Albert Angell, for his invention called Britannic elastic gum, useful in several sorts of painting.

**LIII.** Experiments and observations on the potatoe root. By G. Pearson, M. D. F. R. S. — It appears that potatoes contain two parts, in seven, of their weight, of meal. The fluid distilled from potatoes was nearly pure water. The author considers the potatoe root as a mechanical mixture of its several ingredients. The word *mechanical*, applied to the structure of a vegetable, is a harsh expression. He does not think that the meal of potatoes is less nutritive than that of grain, and very justly observes that potatoes, with common salt

salt and water, are capable of nourishing men completely. Dr. Pearson adds—'There is good reason to believe that custom would soon render boiled or baked potatoes as agreeable to the palate, as bread; and that they might supply its place at dinners of animal food, in many cases, with decisive advantages.' In confirmation of this opinion, we may remark, that we are acquainted with one person who never eats bread at dinner when he can obtain potatoes; and that he has the appearance of being remarkably well nourished. Dr. Pearson remarks, that the potatoe may be rendered more nutritive by malting; but very properly adds, that in this state, like all strong-tasting mucilages, it soon palls the appetite. This paper contains many observations worthy of general attention.

LIV. Description of a steam engine. By John Cooke, Esq.

LV. Observations on draining land. By Mr. John Wedge.

LVI. On the means of increasing the power of horses when drawing in mills, &c. By M. Baillet de Belloy.

LVII. Conclusion of Mr. Monge's observations on the mechanism of felting.

*The Journal of an Excursion to the United States of North America, in the Summer of 1794. By Henry Wansey, F. A. S. a Wiltshire Clothier. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Wilkie. 1796.*

WE have not perused any account of America which has, upon the whole, given us equal satisfaction with the contents of this Journal, which appears to be an intelligent and candid repository of facts collected with diligence and accuracy. Mr. Wansey thus introduces his excursion to the notice of the reader—

'A desire of knowing something of the United States, of which we hear so much, and know so little, together with some occurrences in business, induced me to make a trip thither during the last summer. I have been highly gratified; and as my account is chiefly founded on my own actual experience and observation, and different in many respects from any other account, I am induced by these motives, as well as, by the request of many friends, to send my Journal forth into the world. It is published in the same order in which it was written on the spot, which I hope will be an excuse for the want of method, or occasional repetition to be found in some places.

'In narratives of this kind, the world is generally better pleased with plain matter of fact, than abstract disquisitions, or the author's own sentiments obtruded too much on the reader.

‘Most of the modern accounts of the United States have been published under the influence of prejudice. While some have rated them too highly in the class of nations, others have depreciated them too much, even to contempt. Imlay’s is the puff *direct*, and Cooper’s the puff *oblique*. On the other hand, the author of the Letters on Emigration, lately published by Kearsley, has viewed every thing with a jaundiced eye. I took Brissot’s Travels in my hand, and passed over the same ground as he did, from Boston through Connecticut to New York, and afterwards to Philadelphia, and frequently stopt at the same inns. His account is tolerably accurate; however, in a period of five years, some considerable alterations and improvements have taken place. His book gives much real information. His account of Mr. Hamilton, Mr. Wadsworth, and of the president, agrees with my own observations, as I was in company, and at the table of each of them.’  
P. vii.

Notwithstanding Mr. Wansey’s remark, that ‘in narratives of this kind,’ the authors should not ‘too much obtrude their sentiments,’ there is no reader who would not wish for a frequent recurrence of remarks distinguished by such good sense and originality as the following —

‘The present appears to me, a good point of time to take a sketch of America, and to mark its progress since it began to rank among the nations of the earth. This government is raising itself on a new system, — without kings — without nobles — without a hierarchy. Religion is left to its own intrinsic worth and evidence, and we now shall see whether it can support its due influence among men, without acts of parliament to enforce it; and whether it is essential to religion, that its eminent men “should rear their mitred fronts in courts and parliaments:” if it will not, it will then, indeed, appear to be a necessary engine of state, to keep rational beings in awe and subjection.

‘It will be grateful to posterity to mark the beginnings of an empire, not founded on conquest, but on the sober progress and dictates of reason, and totally disencumbered of the feudal system, which has cramped the genius of mankind for more than seven hundred years past.

‘In these States, you behold a certain plainness and simplicity of manners, which bespeak temperance, equality of condition, and a sober use of the faculties of the mind — the *mens sana in corpore sano*. It is seldom you hear of a mad man, or a blind man, in any of the States; seldom of a *felo de se*, or a man afflicted with the gout and palsy. There is, indeed, at Philadelphia, an hospital for lunatics. I went over it, but found there very few, if any, who were natives; they were chiefly Irish, and mostly women. The disorders in the United States, arise chiefly from external causes. A bilious remittent fever is common in the South and middle

middle States, about the close of every hot summer, owing to the increased exhalations, at that season, of the stagnant waters, which abound. But this evil is lessening in proportion to the cultivation of their soil, which tends to render the climate itself more temperate.' P. ix.

After a very agreeable journal of his voyage from England, Mr. Wansey gives the following 'account of the city of Boston'—

'On our arrival, we enquired for the best house of entertainment; and were directed to the Bunch of Grapes, in State-Street, kept by colonel Coleman. It is nothing unusual in America for army officers to keep taverns. A man with the title of major sometimes holds your horse, and captains are digging by the road side; it is a vestige of the revolution. During the American war, a man's promotion was not measured so much by his rank or fortune, as by his zeal and assiduity in the service of his country, and it was a cheap way of rewarding him for his services.

'In the year 1740, Boston was esteemed the largest town in America, now Philadelphia and New York rank before it; nevertheless, it is a very flourishing place, full of business and activity. The merchants and tradesmen meet every day, from twelve to two o'clock, in State-Street, as on an exchange. We enquired for a porter, to fetch our luggage from the ship to the tavern, and a free negro offered himself, for which service he required half a dollar. The negroes in this state are all free, and are a respectable body of people. They have a free-masons club, into which they admit no white person. However, I believe they are not yet admitted to hold offices of state, though they vote for them. This town, or city, contains about eighteen thousand inhabitants. State-street is the principal one, about twenty yards wide, is near the center of the town, and leads down to the long wharf. Cornhill is another considerable street; it put me in mind of Basingstoke. Their foot ways are not yet paved with flat stones, the horse and foot way being alike pitched with pebbles, and posts and a gutter to divide them, like the old fashioned towns in England. The buildings likewise, are but indifferent; many of them, as well as their churches, are weather-boarded at the side, and all of them roofed with shingles. A very awkward looking railed enclosure on the top of the houses, for drying clothes, which gives them a very odd appearance. The part of the town called New or West Boston, is an exception to this, for the houses there are all neat and elegant, (of brick) with handsome entrances and door cases, and a flight of steps up to the entrance.

'At colonel Coleman's, which is more properly a lodging house than a tavern, we were but very indifferently accommodated as to beds; generally two in a room, and not very cleanly, for we were much



pestered with bugs. At two o'clock dinner was announced, and we were shewn into a room where we found a long table covered with dishes, and plates for twenty persons. We were served with salmon, veal, beef, mutton, fowl, ham, roots, puddings, &c. &c. each man had his pint of Madeira before him, and for this and our breakfast, tea, supper and bed, we paid five shillings currency, for they make no separate charges, nor do they abate of their charges, were you to dine out every day. There is no shyness in conversation, as at an English table. People of different countries and languages mix together, and converse as familiarly as old acquaintances. Three or four of our company were French emigrants. On one side of me sat a Mr. Washington from Virginia, (no relation to the president, or very distant,) and on the other side a young man from Philadelphia, next to him a person from Newbury Port, three hundred and fifty miles north of Philadelphia. I found myself well entertained with their conversation, on many subjects new to me. In half an hour after the cloth was removed every person had quitted table, to go to their several occupations and employments, except the Frenchmen and ourselves; for the Americans know the value of time too well to waste it at the table. Here I met a Mr. Armstrong, once a clothier at Corsham, in Wilks, near my native place. When we meet a countryman in a remote part of the world, we speak to him as an intimate acquaintance, though perhaps we have never seen each other before. This was the case at present. I took a walk with him to Bunker Hill and Brede's Hill, the ground where the Americans, (June 17th, 1775,) first resisted the attack of the British. A captain Greatan accompanied us, who was an officer on the spot at the very time. He described the whole action, and shewed us the place where Dr. Warren fell; the point where the attack began, and the road by which the Americans retreated. The action was not fought on Bunker Hill, as is on record, but on Brede's Hill. It was but a detachment of the main army which were in action. We followed the same route the armies went, for two miles; we then filed off to the left, and came to the town of Cambridge, where the principal university in the state is established. It is called Harvard College, is an excellent institution, was founded about the year 1650, is well endowed, and supports three hundred students; two large handsome brick buildings separate from each other; a third has been taken down lately, to be rebuilt. We returned to Boston over the new bridge, a most prodigious work for so infant a country; a work, as Mr. Hobe observed, worthy the Roman empire. It is a bridge over an arm of the sea, above one thousand eight hundred feet long, and about thirty four wide, well lighted all the way into Boston, about a mile in length. This bridge is built entirely of wood, and cost about twenty-four thousand pounds, and marks the genius and spirit of the town of Boston. It had been opened but above five months,

when

when we passed it. About half way over the bridge, we observed two iron rings; captain Greatan, by one of them, lifted up a trap door, and discovered a large room below, capable of holding two hundred men, to which we descended by stairs, and saw the machinery by which the draw bridge is lifted up for large vessels to pass. In hot weather, this must be a most delightful cool retreat, as well as an excellent place for bathing.

‘ There are two other long wooden bridges leading from Boston, Mystic and Dorchester. The latter is built on the site of an ancient Indian bridge, part of the causeway of which still remains perfect; but these are not to compare with the new bridge. A very elegant theatre was opened at Boston about three months ago, far superior in taste, elegance and convenience, to the Bath, or any other country theatre that I have ever yet seen in England. I was there last night, with Mr. and Mrs. Vaughan. The play and farce were *Inkle and Yarico*, and *Bon Ton*; I paid a dollar for a ticket. It held about twelve hundred persons. One of the dramatic personæ, was a negro, and he filled his character with great propriety. The dress of the company being perfectly English, and some of the actors, (Jones and his wife,) being those I had seen perform the last winter at Salisbury, in Shatford’s company, made me feel myself at home. Between the play and farce, the orchestra having played *Ca Ira*, the gallery called aloud for *Yankee-doodle*, which after some short opposition was complied with. A Mr. Powell is the manager of the play-house. Mr. Goldfinch, the ingenious architect of this theatre, has also lately built an elegant crescent, called the *Tontine*, about fourteen or sixteen elegant houses, which let for near two hundred pounds sterling, a year.

‘ In Boston, they have forty hackney coaches, and for a quarter dollar you are carried to any part of the town.’ p. 38.

A short account of a few manufactories established near Boston is concluded with remarks which will prove highly satisfactory to those who are sensible of the value of our commerce with America —

‘ All these I judge rather the seeds of manufactories, than any large or permanent establishments. — That energy which is created in our country by necessity and difficulty of living, cannot take place there for many years; nor need England fear a rivalry there, or in any other country. France, when disburthened of her present military government, will be many years in recovering her manufactories.

‘ When we consider that the United States, with scarcely four millions of inhabitants, import annually of our manufactures more than twelve millions of dollars in value, it follows, that when her inhabitants are increased to eight millions, she will want manufactures to the annual amount of twenty-four millions of dollars. From hence I conclude, that her population and prosperity are an

advantage to Great Britain, I am convinced that the ability of the United States to manufacture, cannot keep pace, by any means, with her encreasing population; at least for a century. It therefore follows, that she must encrease in her demand for foreign manufactures; and the Americans generally acknowledge that no country can supply them so well as Great Britain.' p. 48.

Mr. Wansey thus describes a visit to the celebrated general Gates—

'I went this morning, with Mr. Priestly and Mr. Henry, to breakfast with general Gates, the hero of Saratoga. He has a very pleasant country situation, about three miles from New York, on the borders of the Sound; from whence you have a good view of Long Island, and of the shipping. He received us very hospitably. His wife is a pleasant, chatty, fat little woman, of sixty; and described to us a visit paid to them by an Indian warrior, whose dignity of manners, and serious behaviour, were both engaging and respectable.—Seeing a servant holding a silver waiter, and carrying the cups thereon, he observed that the servant was putting it to a wrong use; a hole should have been drilled in it, and it should be hung round the neck, for then it would make an excellent breast-plate. He also remarked on the want of good judgment among the white people, in having their bed-rooms piled on the top of the others: walking upwards is so unnatural; especially when there was so much room on the ground. Besides you were in that situation so easily surprized by the enemy, who could put a fire under you, and burn you, while you were asleep. Many other observations, equally odd, he also made, all of which I make no doubt he was convinced were according to the true dictates of nature and common sense, and the fitness and reason of things.

'The old general, upon finding I came from Wiltshire, called me countryman, and said he was born not far from me, near Totness, in Devonshire. He is quite the uncle Toby; all his ideas and expressions are still military; at the same time so modest, as not to mention any thing relating to Saratoga, or any of his own military achievements.' p. 79.

Our author's lively and affecting account of a species of American patriotism will probably call to the recollection of the reader the preparations made for the king's acceptance of the constitution in the *Champ de Mars*, at the early and innocent period of French freedom—

'As I was getting up in the morning, I heard drums beating and fifes playing. I ran to the window, and saw a large body of people on the other side of the governor's house, with flags flying, and marching two and two towards the water side. What, thought I, can the meaning of this be? The peaceful Americans with the ensigns of war? What! have the Americans a standing army too in

In time of peace? The sound of the drum is what I have not heard since I left England. I hastened down stairs, and the mystery was soon explained: it was a procession of young tradesmen going in boats to Governor's Island, to give the state a day's work. Fortifications are there erecting for strengthening the entrance to New York Harbour; it is a patriotic and general resolution of the inhabitants of this city, to work a day gratis, without any distinction of rank or condition, for the public advantage, on these fortifications. To-day, the whole trade of carpenters and joiners; yesterday, the body of masons; before this, the grocers, school-masters, coopers, and barbers: next Monday, all the attorneys and men concerned in the law, handle the mattock and shovel, the whole day, and carry their provisions with them. How noble is this! How it cherishes unanimity and love for their country! How much does it tend to unite all ranks of people, and render the social compact firm and united!' p. 81.

The philanthropist will sympathise with our author, and exclaim—Long may such unanimity distinguish the people of America, and the virtues of peace and freedom adorn and strengthen the rising republic!—It is evident, however, from our author's observations on the American parties, that he means the social unanimity of citizens, and not unanimity in the body politic: he thus characterises the '*federalists and anti-federalists*'—

'The former are those who are attached to the present federal government; they study to give it weight and consequence, and are for keeping a funded debt to strengthen the hands of government; they are rather averse to French politics, and for preserving a peace and good understanding with Great Britain. The heads of this party are general Washington, colonels Hamilton, Dexter, Lee, Murray, Sedgwick, and W. Smith.

'The anti-federalists are for curtailing the power of congress, and leaning to a popular form of government; are totally against the funding system, as the source of corruption; stronger in the principles of republicanism, and for adopting French politics, with a fixed aversion to Great Britain. At the head of these are Messrs. Madison, Jefferson, Randolph, Monroe, Clark, Dayton, Giles, &c.

'It is believed by many of good judgment and cool heads, that these sparrings between the federalists and anti-federalists will do no mischief, but rather keep alive a degree of public spirit, which is not naturally very strong in the Americans, but which is essentially necessary in all free governments.

'Controversy and discussion, in my opinion, are as necessary to the well being of the body politic, as food and exercise are to the body corporate. The free discussion of all public measures, prevents the abuse of power. In all countries, in all governments, put men out of the fear of controul, and they become tyrants. Why is not Spain as fertile in men of genius as Great Britain? Be-

cause they dare not write or speak for fear of the inquisition,\*  
p. 90.

‘ Who have been more reprobated than Doctors Priestley, Price, and J. Jebb? And where will you find three contemporary Britons who have been more useful to mankind! If the present age will not honor them, posterity shall do them justice, and future ages shall call them blessed! The meretricious pen of a Burke, sometimes employed in favor of liberty, and sometimes to destroy it, with all its tropes and figures, with all its brilliant ornaments and dazzling trinkets, will be execrated by the next age, who will have a fairer standard to judge them by; — to them he will appear as an *ignis fatuus* leading men out of their way into bogs and quagmires. — This is the man that has been one of their greatest calumniators.’  
p. 92.

We know not what those who admire the eloquent insanity of Mr. Burke, will say to the remarks which conclude the extract; of the truth of the *presentiment* they discover, we have a steady belief. The disciples of Mr. Burke will indeed pay dearly for their initiation: while they imagine they have snatched the blooming fruit of political knowledge, they will taste and die; they will imbibe a mental poison that will render them unworthy and unable to enjoy the paradise of renovated — rational liberty.

Mr. Wansey gives the following description of the house of representatives in Congress, and finished with a remark worthy the attention of many British senators—

‘ On entering the house of representatives, I was struck with the convenient arrangement of the seats for the members. The size of the chamber was about one hundred feet by sixty. The seats in three rows formed semi-circles behind each other, facing the speaker, who was in a kind of pulpit near the centre of the radii, and the clerks below him. Every member was accommodated for writing, by there being likewise a circular writing desk to each of the circular seats. Over the entrance was a large gallery, into which were admitted every citizen, without distinction, who chose to attend; and under the gallery likewise were accommodations for those who were introduced. But no person either in the gallery or under it, is suffered to express any marks of applause or discontent, at what is debated; it being understood they are present in the person of their representative. This has been a great error in the new French government. An attempt, however, was once made to introduce it here \* (in March last) by a clapping of hands, at a speech

\* This was not the first instance of the kind. In 1791 or 1792, a speech of general Jackson's, on the trial of a contested election, was loudly applauded by the audience: on which occasion, the speaker ordered the galleries to be cleared, but was over-ruled by the majority of the members present in a very full house. Rzv.

which

which fell from Mr. Parker. But the whole house instantly rose to refute it, and adjourned their business, being then in a committee, and the galleries were cleared.

‘Over the door I observed a bust of Dr. Franklin, the great founder of their liberties, and the father of their present constitution.

“Eripuit cœlo fulmen, sceptrumque tyrannis.”

‘A serious attention to business marked the countenances of the representatives, who were all decently dressed, which is not the case in all houses of that kind meeting for the dispatch of national business.’ P. 111.

The recent attack by Mr. Paine on the character of general Washington, gives, if possible, an additional interest to our author’s account of ‘the president of the United States.’ Superior to the influence of either aristocratical or democratical malice, Mr. Wansley’s ingenuous penetration offers a just tribute to the fame of that truly great man: nor will the reader fail to be impressed with the truth and eloquence of the *philosophical clothier’s* introductory remarks—

‘Friday, June 6. Had the honor of an interview with the president of the United States, to whom I was introduced by Mr. Dandridge, his secretary. He received me very politely, and after reading my letters, I was asked to breakfast. There was very little of the ceremony of courts, the Americans will not permit this; nor does the disposition of his excellency lead him to assume it.

‘I confess, I was struck with awe and veneration, when I recollected that I was now in the presence of one of the greatest men upon earth—the great Washington—the noble and wise benefactor of the world! as Mirabeau styles him;—the advocate of human nature—the friend of both worlds. Whether we view him as a general in the field, vested with unlimited authority and power, at the head of a victorious army; or in the cabinet, as the president of the United States; or as a private gentleman, cultivating his own farm; he is still the same great man, anxious only to discharge with propriety the duties of his relative situation. His conduct has always been so uniformly manly, honourable, just, patriotic, and disinterested, that his greatest enemies cannot fix on any one trait of his character that can deserve the least censure. His paternal regard for the army while he commanded it; his earnest and sincere desire to accomplish the glorious object for which they were contending; his endurance of the toils and hazards of war, without ever receiving the least emolument from his country; and his retirement to private life after the peace, plainly evince, that his motives were the most pure and patriotic, that could proceed from a benevolent heart. His letters to Congress during the war,

war, now lately published in England\*, as well as his circular letter and farewell orders to the armies of the United States, at the end of the war, shew him to have been justly ranked among the fine writers of the age. When we look down from this truly great and illustrious character, upon other public servants, we find a glaring contrast; nor can we fix our attention upon any other great men, without discovering in them a vast and mortifying dissimilarity!

‘The president in his person, is tall and thin, but erect; rather of an engaging than a dignified presence. He appears very thoughtful, is slow in delivering himself, which occasions some to conclude him reserved, but it is rather, I apprehend, the effect of much thinking and reflection, for there is great appearance to me of affability and accommodation. He was at this time in his sixty-third year, being born February 11, 1732, O. S. but he has very little the appearance of age, having been all his life-time so exceeding temperate. There is a certain anxiety visible in his countenance, with marks of extreme sensibility.

‘Notwithstanding his great attention and employment in the affairs of his well-regulated government, and of his own agricultural concerns, he is in correspondence with many of the eminent geniuses in the different countries of Europe, not so much for the sake of learning and fame, as to procure the knowledge of agriculture, and the arts useful to his country.

‘I informed his excellency, in the course of conversation, that I was a manufacturer from England, who, out of curiosity as well as business, had made an excursion to America, to see the state of society there; to inspect their various manufactories, and particularly the woollen, with which I was best acquainted. The general asked me what I thought of their wool? I informed him, that I had seen some very good and fine, at Hartford, in Connecticut, which they told me came from Georgia, but that in general it was very indifferent: yet from the appearance of it, I was convinced it was capable of very great improvement. That, to my surprise, in the course of travelling two hundred and fifty miles from Boston hither, I had not seen any flock of more than twenty or thirty sheep, and but few of these; from whence I concluded there was no great quantity grown in the states, so as to answer any great purposes for manufacture. His excellency observed, that from his own experience, he believed it capable of great improvement, for he had been trying some experiments with his own flocks (at Mount Vernon;) that by attending to breed and pasturage, he had so far improved his fleeces, as to have increased them from two to six pounds a-piece; but that since, from a multiplicity of other objects to attend to, they were, by being neglected, gone back to half their weight, being now scarcely three pounds. I took this

\* Official Letters from General Washington to Congress. See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XIII. p. 428, and Vol. XVI. p. 170.

opportunity to offer him one of my publications on the Encouragement of Wool, which he seemed with pleasure to receive.

' Mrs. Washington herself made tea and coffee for us. On the table were two small plates of sliced tongue, dry toast, bread and butter, &c. but no broiled fish, as is the general custom. Miss Custis, her grand-daughter, a very pleasing young lady, of about sixteen, sat next to her, and her brother, George Washington Custis, about two years older than herself. There was but little appearance of form : one servant only attended, who had no livery ; a silver urn for hot water, was the only article of expence on the table. She appears something older than the president, though I understand, they were both born in the same year ; short in stature, rather robust ; very plain in her dress, wearing a very plain cap, with her grey hair closely turned up under it. She has routs or levees, (which-ever the people chuses to call them) every Wednesday and Saturday, at Philadelphia, during the sitting of Congress. But the anti-federalists object even to these, as tending to give a super-eminency, and introductory to the paraphernalia of courts.

' After some general conversation, we rose from table, to view a model which a gentleman from Virginia, who had breakfasted with us, had brought for the inspection of the president. It was a scheme to convey vessels on navigable canals, from one lock to another, without the expence of having flood-gates, by means of a lever, weighted by a quantity of water pumped into a reservoir.

' The president has continual applications from the ingenious, as the patron of every new invention, which, good or bad, he with great patience listens to, and receives them all in a manner to make them go away satisfied.' P. 122.

It has been frequently and confidently asserted that the stability of the American constitution depended on the life of the illustrious character just described ; our author's attentive observation on the manners and government of the United States has led him to form a contrary opinion : — he observes —

' The English are apt to think of general Washington as the Greeks did of Hector —

" When Hector falls, then Ilion is no more ;"

I was much of that opinion myself, before I went to America, but I now think otherwise ; their government is of that mild excellent frame as to require in the executive power not great abilities, as the complicated affairs of Europe do, but only a cool judgment, and a slowness to act. If America avoids war and interference in the politics of Europe, nothing can hurt her. The spirit observed in their political clubs and self-created societies will do no material mischief ; it will only keep them from falling into that supineness and passive acquiescence to the measures of ministry, which have been so fatal to the liberties of the people in other countries. The

warm



warm animated disputes between the plebeians and patricians in ancient Rome, was the foundation of all its greatness, and so, in my opinion, will be the sparrings between the federalists and the anti-federalists. A vigorous executive power is unnecessary in states like those of America.' P. 187.

The cannot be a more striking illustration of our author's sentiments, than the dignified order which attended the great Washington's recent resignation of the presidency ; this solemn era in the history of American freedom has given an unrivalled specimen of the steady character which obtained, and which will doubtless render permanent, the liberties of the new world.

We lament that our limits compel us to withdraw our attention from the production before us, which we recommend to the public as one that will afford considerable information and pleasure in the perusal.

*A Vindication of the Doctrine of Scripture, and of the Primitive Faith; concerning the Deity of Christ: in Reply to Dr. Priestley's History of Early Opinions, &c. By John Jamieson, D. D. F. A. S. S. Minister of the Gospel, Forfar. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Dilly.*

‘THE idea of this work’ (we are informed by Dr. Jamieson) ‘was first suggested by a letter which appeared, under Dr. Priestley’s signature, in one of the London prints, about four years ago. The design of this letter was to state that, although some years had elapsed since the publication of his History of Early Opinions concerning Jesus Christ, no answer had been given to it ; and that, if the same silence should be observed during a certain time which he is pleased to limit, he would consider it as an acknowledgment, on the part of the whole Christian world, that it was unanswerable.

‘For a considerable time, I hesitated, expecting that some more able combatant would enter the lists against this literary giant, who has “defied the armies of the living God.” But a full conviction that I have truth on my side, emboldened me to engage in this work ; and, notwithstanding various discouragements, to proceed in it.’ Vol. i. P. iii.

In the conduct of this elaborate performance, it has been the object of the author, as far as the nature of his undertaking would admit, to restore the controversy to its proper limits ; with a view to which, he not only considers the principal arguments from scripture contained in Dr. Priestley’s History, but occasionally introduces others, which were distinctly published ;

*and of the Primitive Faith, concerning the Deity of Christ.* 285  
published; especially as being referred to for further illustration.

Dr. Jamieson has divided his *Vindication* into six books, the *first* of which investigates the doctrine of the ancient Jews concerning the Messiah, — the *second*, the doctrine of the New Testament concerning Jesus Christ, — the *third*, the evidence of the deity of Christ from the use of that expression, ‘the Son of God,’ — the *fourth*, Dr. Priestley’s arguments against the deity of Christ. — The *fifth* enters on the history of the pretended Unitarian doctrine among Jewish, and the *sixth*, among Gentile Christians. Each book is divided into subordinate chapters.

We should have been glad, had the nature and extent of the work permitted, to have presented our readers with a more precise summary of it; but thus much we make no scruple to declare, that it is by far the ablest defence which has hitherto appeared; and that, whether or not its appearance be within the time Dr. Priestley has most LOGICALLY thought proper to limit before he should draw his conclusion, it will certainly rescue the Christian world from admitting that his boasted performance was received as unanswerable. — For a specimen of Dr. Jamieson’s manner, we insert the following extract —

‘ Our author says; “ Let us now attend to some particulars in the history of the apostles.” We cordially accede to the proposal, being convinced that the more this history is examined, the more will the falsity of our author’s system appear. “ When Herod,” he says, “ had put to death James, the brother of John, and imprisoned Peter, we read, Acts xii. 5. that prayer was made without ceasing of the church unto God, not to Christ, for him.” But the point that the doctor has yet to prove, is, that this prayer was exclusively made to the Father. We have at least as good reason to believe that this prayer was heard and answered by the Son, as that it was made to the Father. For Peter says; “ Now, I know of a surety, that the Lord hath sent his angel, and hath delivered me,” ver. 11. But our author informs us that “ this term, the Lord, generally signifies Christ.” And the most that can be said of the other, is that it generally signifies the Father. But we are to understand neither exclusively. For we have as good evidence that Jesus is the one Lord, as our opponents have that the father is the one God.

‘ We are also told that “ when Paul and Silas were in prison at Philippi, they sung praises to God, not to Christ, Acts xvi. 25.” But from the context, it would be most natural to think that this term includes Christ as well as the Father. For Paul enjoins the jailor to believe on the Lord Jesus Christ, assuring him that thus he should

should be saved, and in a little we find that this is the same with believing in God, ver. 31. 34. At any rate, I could not, for my part; venture to believe, or trust in a person for salvation, from whom I could not ask it in prayer.

‘ It is added; “ When Paul was warned of what would befall him if he went to Jerusalem; Acts xxi. 14. he said, The will of the Lord be done. This, it must be supposed, was meant of God the Father, because Christ himself used the same language, when praying to the Father, he said, Not my will, but thine be done.” But the doctor has taken only a cursory view of this passage. For it was not Paul, but the brethren, who spoke in this manner. However, because one act of worship is substantially the same with another, expressly addressed to a particular person; it will not follow, if there be no other evidence, that the same person is addressed in both instances. Nor can it be justly concluded that the words, here quoted, could not respect Christ, because he used the same language in addressing the Father. For Dr. P. himself cannot deny that the dying martyr Stephen addressed the same prayer to Jesus, as Jesus at his own death, addressed to the Father. It is granted that this language, with respect to Christ, “ The will of the Lord be done,” was used very differently from that, “ Not my will,” &c. For in the former instance his divine will is meant, as being essentially the same with that of the Father. But in the latter, he spoke merely of his human will. According to the doctor’s own acknowledgment, there must be more probability that the term Lord here respects Christ, than that it respects the Father. For he grants as we have seen, that it generally bears the former sense. But the truth is; Dr P. is willing that the term Lord should denote Christ, when it does not necessarily refer to any of that lordship which is peculiar to the divine nature; that is, when it can be applied to him without its proper meaning.

‘ It is certainly most natural to think that the same person is here meant, as the Lord, who, in the verse immediately preceding, is called the Lord Jesus. An impartial reader would undoubtedly conclude that the language of the brethren directly referred to that of Paul. He said, “ I am ready not to be bound only, but also to die at Jerusalem for the name of the Lord Jesus. And when he would not be persuaded, we ceased, saying, The will of the Lord be done.” Nor would such a reader suppose that the brethren ascribed too much to him, for whose name Paul was willing to suffer so much. It would naturally occur, that the Lord for whom he was ready to die, had surely something to say as to the disposal of his lot. But let our author inform us, if it be not this Lord Jesus, of whom another apostle, as expressing the faith of all believers in his time, declares; “ This is the confidence that we have in him, that if we ask any thing according to his will, he heareth us. And if

if we know that he hear us, whatsoever we ask, we know that we have the petitions that we desired of him," 1 John v. 14, 15.

' Dr. P. here transcribes the whole prayer of the apostles, recorded Acts iv. 24. and carefully inserts "or servant," where according to our version it is "thy Holy Child Jesus." But what does all this prove, but that which hath never been denied on the other side, that God the Father is properly addressed in prayer? But it cannot prove that he is the only object.

' The doctor then says; "We have now examined some particulars both of the instructions, and the examples of scripture with regard to the proper object of prayer, in time of persecution," &c. He here refers to a notion which some have entertained, that "Christ is the proper object of prayer in time of persecution." But surely he who may with propriety be addressed as the object of worship at any time, may be thus addressed at all times.

' The doctor has examined these, but he has carefully passed over a great variety of other instructions and examples, which clearly prove that Christ is the object of prayer. We have formerly seen that the first Christians were generally known by the designation of those who called on the name of Jesus, and proved that this denotes religious worship; that they prayed to him, when supplying the vacancy in the college of the apostles, Acts i. 24. that Stephen truly did so, chap. vii. 59, 60. that Paul was engaged in the same exercise, chap. xxii. 17. 1 Tim. i. 12. and that he commended or dedicated the elders of the church of Ephesus to the gracious Word of God, as really as to God the Father, Acts xx. 32.

' Many other passages might be mentioned, which contain the same proof. We have Paul's own account of his exercise, when buffeted by a messenger of Satan. "For this thing," he says, "I besought the Lord thrice. — And he said unto me, My grace is sufficient for thee; my strength is made perfect in thy weakness." With the same breath he adds; "Most gladly, therefore, will I rather glory in mine infirmity, that the power of Christ may rest upon me," 2 Cor. xii. 8, 9. Surely, the same Lord, whom he besought, answered him: and that this was the Lord Christ, is evident from Paul's calling that the power or strength of Christ, (for the word is the same) which the Lord had called his power. Whatever the Lord meant by his strength being made perfect in Paul's weakness, Paul himself understood as included in the strength of Christ resting on him, or dwelling in him as in a tabernacle.

' Does not the same apostle view Christ as the object of prayer, equally with the Father, when he says; "Now may God himself, and our Father, and our Lord Jesus Christ, direct our way unto you?" 1 Thes. iii. 11.

' Jesus received this honour from his disciples and others, even during his humiliation. They prayed to him for temporal salva-

tion, which none but God can give, Mat. viii. 25. for mercy, chap. ix. 27. for the increase of their faith, Luke xvii. 5. for the suppression of their unbelief, Mark ix. 24.

'The same glorious person was addressed by believers, as the object of prayer, before his incarnation. Jacob supplicated the God of his fathers as that angel who had redeemed him from all evil, and who had power to bless, Gen. xlviii. 15, 16. He was known as "the name of the God of Jacob," and under this character addressed as the object of prayer, and as the protector of his people, Psal. xx. 1. Now, we have the impartial testimony of Philo, that the personal Word was called the Name of God.' Vol. i. p. 530.

*The History of Scotland from the Accession of the House of Stuart to that of Mary. With Appendices of Original Papers. By John Pinkerton. (Continued from p. 8.)*

AS we advance in the survey of this work, we observe some improvement in the arts of composition, and a more frequent reference to materials before unexplored. That period also is more interesting which is described in the second volume, as it involves the remarkable reigns of James IV. and V.

We have abundant reason, as we proceed, to commend the diligence of the author, and applaud his eagerness for the discovery of truth. In all doubtful points, however, he cannot be supposed to have been equally successful. Though some clouds have been dispersed, others yet remain to obscure the historic atmosphere.

Some traits of resemblance appear between the character of James IV. and that of our third Edward. Both were open and manly in their deportment; fond of the exercises of chivalry; affable, liberal, and beneficent; generally just in their decrees; patrons of art and science; and promoters of order and security. But the mind of Edward was more cultivated than that of the Scottish monarch: he was less swayed by the force of passion; and he was far more able both as a statesman and as a military commander.

The character of James IV. (says Mr. Pinkerton) was—

'brightened with many illustrious qualities, and darkened with few shades. His strict administration of justice, by which the realm was maintained in a tranquillity long unknown, his uniform concord with his nobles, his magnificence, his generosity, his patronage of useful arts and sciences, particularly navigation, which had been strangely neglected by the Scottish monarchs, and even his spi-

nit of chivalry, were to render his reign popular and glorious. Nor has it been unjustly asserted that the period of his domination was that of the greatest wealth, and power, of Scotland, while a separate kingdom. Yet some of his qualities were rather specious than solid, and rather belonged to chivalrous romance than to real life: in the high regal duties of a politician, and of a general, he was extremely defective; his natural impetuosity predominating alike in his smaller pursuits, and in his most important affairs. The avarice of the preceding reign he contrasted by a profusion, which secured the attachment of the peers at the expence of the people. That superstitious devotion, which, with a few exceptions, was inherent in his family from its first elevation, till its final descent from the throne, was in the fourth James much increased by his remorse for the death of his father; and the mass formed one of his chief daily offices. The resources of his magnificence were not exempt from a charge of extortion: but his gentleness, and affability, won all hearts, and stifled all murmurs. Just in his decrees, the severity of punishment was softened by his visible reluctance to chastise. To admonition, or even reproach, his ear was open; and his sense of an innocent conscience such that he listened without the smallest emotion. By a neglected education he was ignorant of letters; but his mind was acute; he excelled in music, in horsemanship, and other exercises; and a firm constitution enabled him to support every fatigue. His person was of a middle size, and elegant; his countenance majestic. Vol. ii. p. 1.

The adventurous and impetuous spirit of James plunged his kingdom into two wars with England. In the first, he appeared as the supporter of Perkin Warbeck against Henry VII. We should have been pleased with a discussion of the disputed subject, whether Perkin was the son of Edward IV. but, as such an investigation would have been a digression, it was not necessary that this writer should enter into it. The war with England was soon terminated; and a treaty was afterwards concluded for the marriage of James with Margaret, the daughter of Henry; a connection which introduced the house of Stuart to the possession of the English crown.

‘The final conclusion of the marriage treaty, and perpetual peace, with England, contributed to increase the festivity of the Scottish court, which before exceeded moderation. The youth, and gallant temper, of James induced him to a display of magnificence, and a profusion of expenditure, improper for his own finances, or those of his kingdom. Sums, which might have contributed much to public utility, were sacrificed to vain shew, and upon the altar of mercenary beauty. Besides vulgar and fugitive amours, the daughters of the nobles yielded to his attractions of person and rank: three ladies of quality produced pledges of his love: . . . . Among his expences those

of architecture were perhaps the most laudable, the palaces of Stirling and Falkland were adorned and improved: nor was his natural superstition unemployed in building and enlarging monasteries, and other religious foundations, for his piety, as not unusual, was as violent as his disposition to amorous sin. Yet even his vain magnificence delighted the general eye; the people smiled at his pleasures, while they enjoyed his equitable and prosperous government: and James deserved, and obtained, the voice of public applause.' Vol. ii. p. 37.

In this quotation, particularly in the last sentence, the reader will probably perceive some attempts at an imitation of the style of Gibbon. How far they are successful, we leave to his determination.

The parliament, in the reign of James, exerted its efforts for the introduction of law and civilisation into the highlands and isles; 'godlike efforts,' (exclaims the patriotic historian) 'before which the triumphs of war sink into contempt!' He laments, that the judicious endeavours of the legislature 'had little influence over a deeply-rooted barbarism—'

'The effectual improvement of the highlands and isles was reserved for the eighteenth, and the following centuries: may it proceed, may it prosper, may those regions become the chosen abodes of industry, of art, of opulence; and may fortune recompense the inhabitants, so long to be classed among the most unindustrious, uncivilized, slavish, and unhappy, of mankind, by every accumulation of liberty and felicity. p. 50.

To the production of the second war between James and the English, the arts of Andrew Forman, bishop of Moray, appear to have contributed: but, if the king had been more discerning, and less rash and imprudent, those arts would not have prevailed.

'He must certainly have been an insincere statesman who was at once a favourite of his deluded master, and of the courts of London, Paris, and Rome. Had his sphere been as extensive as that of his cotemporary Wolfey, he might have shone with all his guilt and glory. Like that famous minister, he blended his private avarice and ambition with every foreign negotiation: the concessions made to England, the treaty of perpetual peace, procured Forman the rich priory of Cottingham; the sale of his king and country now acquired to him from France the archbishopric of Bourges; his devotion to the papal interest was soon to obtain that of St. Andrews. The miseries of nations so often originate from profligate statesmen, while their unhappy sovereigns sustain the blame, that it is the peculiar duty of history to unfold the infamy of ministers. Forman's repeated epistolary persuasions were seconded by all the diplomatic refinement,

refinement, and corrupt intrigue, of La Motte the French ambassador; who now returned with four ships, laden with flour and wine, besides some English prizes, for he appeared in the double character of an envoy, and a warrior. But his most valuable freight, if we believe Henry's reproaches to James, consisted of crowns of the sun, a golden coinage of France, which he profusely distributed to the Scottish king, and courtiers. The character of James had been well studied by La Motte, and was completely known by Forman, so that it was now touched with a masterly hand; for letters, written in an amorous strain, appeared from a high-born damsel in distress, the queen of France, to this prince of chivalry, in which she termed him her knight; and, assuring him that she had suffered much blame in the defence of his honour, beseeched him to advance but three steps into English ground with his army, for the sake of his mistress. The artful queen, Anne of Bretagne, who died a few years after in her thirty-seventh year, at the same time sent to James fourteen thousand crowns; and, what ought to have been more valuable to an errant knight, a ring from her own finger. An exquisite sensibility of honour was the peculiar foible of James, as it was to be of his successor, and proved in different modes fatal to both." Vol. ii. p. 86.

The battle of Flodden is described with perspicuity; and the remarks which introduce the reign of James V. are written in Mr. Pinkerton's best manner.

'No event' (he says) 'more immediately calamitous than the defeat at Flodden darkens the Scottish annals. Shrieks of despair resounded through the kingdom. Wives, mothers, daughters, rushed into the streets, and highways; tearing their hair, indulging all the distraction of sorrow, while each invoked some favourite name, a husband, a son, a father, a brother, a lover, now blended in one bloody mass of destruction. While the pleasing labours of harvest were abandoned, while an awful silence reigned in the former scenes of rural mirth, the castle and the tower echoed to the lamentations of noble matrons and virgins; the churches and chapels were filled with melancholy processions, to deprecate the divine vengeance, and to chaunt with funereal music the masses of the slain. Nor, amid the pangs of private distress, was the monarch forgotten: the valiant, the affable, the great, the good; who, in an evil hour, had sacrificed to precipitation a reign of virtues; who in the vigour of his life had fallen in a foreign land, and whose mangled body was the prey of his enemies. The national sorrow was heightened by terror at the scene which seemed ready to open, of servitude, and of ruin. France, itself endangered, could afford no aid: the English monarch might little regard the ties of blood, but might wrest from his infant nephew a kingdom left defenceless by the loss of its peers and best warriors. Even now the philosopher, and the historian, may



regard this crisis as the most fatal which ever attacked the prosperity of Scotland. The reign of James IV is allowed to have been the period of the highest national success, and a summit, from which the public fortune was gradually to decline, till, in the present century, it again began to ascend. The defeat at Flodden, the death of the king, left the country a prey to foreign influence and intrigue, which continued till Scotland ceased to form a separate kingdom: her finances were exhausted; her leaders corrupted; her dignity degraded; her commerce and her agriculture neglected. Henceforth her historic page aspires little to glory; but still continues deeply to interest by the peculiarity, and variety, and even by the tragical nature, of its events.' Vol. ii. p. 108.

An unfavourable character is given of the administration of John duke of Albany, who acted as protector of the Scottish realm during the non-age of James V. There was, indeed, an inconsistency in the government of that nobleman, irreconcilable with true wisdom; but it may be doubted whether he was so contemptible as cardinal Wolsey has represented him in a private letter, in which he says, that the duke 'is known to be a coward, and a furious and wilful fool.'

The peace of Scotland, in the minority of James, was disturbed by occasional commotions, as well as by English intrigues and hostilities. Wolsey laboured to establish, in the northern cabinet, the influence of Henry VIII. and the French court supported an opposite party. Margaret, the queen-dowager, espoused the English faction, but not with inflexible constancy.

Speaking of this princess, the author observes, that

'Her amorous propensities were strong; and were to be indulged at the expence of ambition and decency, in precipitate marriages; and, if we believe her brother and Wolsey, in yet bolder deviations. But eminent in accomplishments, and in prudence when unbiassed by her passions, her talents throw her faults into the shade. Her long letters display an intimate knowledge of affairs, and characters, considerable ability, and patient industry. In her political conduct she was not free from the levity ascribed to the sex, and was apt to pass from one extreme to another; and, when in power, alternately to display too much pride or too much humility, a severity too stern, or a gentleness too relaxed. Yet the times were difficult; and that wisdom could not be mean which attracted the praise of the able Dacre, of the prudent and magnanimous Surrey, and of the cautious cardinal, a praise not to be suspected of flattery, because neither pronounced nor known to the object.' Vol. ii. p. 113.

After the abdication of the regent duke, the intriguing queen assumed the chief authority;—and, while she thus acted

acted for her son, she made overtures to the French court, to the prejudice of her brother the king of England; whose influence, however, drove her from the helm, which was seized by the earl of Angus. The young king at length shook off the trammels of guardianship, which the ambition of the house of Douglas would willingly have continued.

‘Of this monarch’ (Mr. Pinkerton remarks) all our early historians present one uniform character; and their general voice proclaims his excellence. His education, as usual with princes who ascend the throne in infancy, had been neglected, or erroneous; corrupted by flattery; rendered deficient in its tasks from the preceptor’s fear of displeasing. Yet his mind was great, his affections warm, his discernment acute. His vices were few, and never interrupted the happiness of his people. His propensity to vague amour was palliated by his general affability; his sternness to the nobles by his favour to the common people, which was so eminent that he received from his affectionate subjects the glorious appellation of King of the Poor. To the voice of poverty, to the prayer of distress, the gates of his palace stood ever open: with one hand he raised the indigent, while with the other he crushed the proud oppressor. In the knowledge of the laws and customs of his kingdom he was so completely versed, that his decisions were as exact as they were expeditious; and from horseback he often pronounced decrees worthy of the sagest seat of justice. Of indubitable valour, of remarkable strength of constitution, he exposed his life, and health, without hesitation, at any season when it became necessary to curb the marauding borderers, or highlanders, rendered lawless during the disorders of a long minority. The dangers of the wilderness, the gloom of night, the tempests of winter, could not prevent his patient exertions to protect the helpless, to punish the guilty, to enforce the observance of the laws. A stranger to pride, he despised it in others; and his speech was ever sprinkled with humanity.

‘The faults of his government, though not minute, are more to be ascribed to the times, than to the character of the monarch. His avarice naturally arose from the penury of his education, the dissipation of his finances, and even of the furniture of his palaces, by the unprincipled duke of Albany. But his amassed treasure was employed in the construction of magnificent works of architecture, and of a navy; and in other plans of general utility and glory. His political designs were long studied; yet as he died in his thirtieth year he could not have acquired the experience of age: and the period of his reign presented combinations too intricate for the most skilful prudence to foresee, or define. The progress of the protestant religion was dubious; and dangerous it is for a prince to embrace a new system before it be approved by a great majority of his subjects. Untaught by the glorious concord between his father

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and

and the nobles, James entertained a fixed enmity against the aristocracy, which had effected great usurpations during his minority; and his attachment to the eminent clergy, who alone could balance their power, was unavoidable.

‘Of the person, and domestic life, of James V the features are well known. His frame was of the middle size, and robust, capable of every exertion of agility, or fatigue. In elegance of form, and countenance, he equalled any prince of his time. His oval face, blue eyes of piercing splendor, aquiline nose, yellow hair, and small beard forked in the fashion of that period, impressed the beholders with ideas of sweetness joined with majesty. In dress he was rather elegant than magnificent: yet his palaces were replete with decoration. The repast of a peasant he would share; and, even from a sumptuous board, the royal meal was plain, and frugal; nor did he entrust his dignity to the intemperance of wine. Eminently patient he was of labour, of hunger and thirst, of heat and cold. His attachment to the arts was decided: he reared palaces of good architecture; and composed some fugitive pieces of poetry, though it be doubtful if any have reached our times. He replenished his country with artillery, and military weapons; and the beauty of his gold coins bespeaks his attention even to the minutest improvements, to be gained by the employment of foreign artists. The Scottish navy, ruined by Albany, began to resume some importance: and the subsequent voyage of James to the Orkneys and Hebrides, accompanied by men of skill, in order to examine the dangers and advantages of the circumjacent seas, will ever deserve the applause of the philosopher, as an enterprize equally rare and meritorious.’ Vol. ii. p. 292.

The religious intolerance of James ought not to have been excluded from this sketch of his character and government. In giving way to the merciless bigotry of his clergy, and suffering them to commit to the flames those who differed from their creed, he evinced a want of firmness, as well as a disregard to humanity.

This omission is afterwards supplied; and the cruelty of the king is not only palliated, but justified. ‘It is impossible’ (says the panegyrist of James) ‘for a politician or philosopher to censure his conduct, as he was only hurried along in the necessary stream of public affairs.’ This assertion is absurd and unphilosophical. In no country, and in no circumstances whatever, could the *necessary stream of public affairs* require or justify the murder of those who merely controverted the religious opinions of the times. If they had carried to a seditious extent their opposition to the established doctrines, there might then have been some excuse for a slight punishment; but no arguments can effectually vindicate the barbarity which we here condemn.

The author is more reasonable, when he offers excuses for the continued adherence of James to the Romish religion; an adherence, however, which did not require the capital punishment of persons of a different persuasion.† He was advised by Henry to abjure the authority of Rome, and dissolve the monastic foundations of his realm: but he was unwilling to adopt this counsel.

‘ It required a mind strong even to violence, like that of Henry VIII, to change an established system, so deeply interwoven with every branch of government. The gross imprudence of Henry in the management of the English influence in Scotland, but particularly in supporting the infamous Douglasses against their sovereign, even till the death of James, must have rendered his conduct and counsels suspicious, and deservedly to be shunned. He had in a manner forced James to fix a connexion with France; a political tie which of itself forbade him to adopt a system reprobated by his most powerful ally. The talents of the clergy, particularly of Beton, the incapacity and illiterature of the nobles, the matrimonial alliance with the bigotted house of Guise, all afford motives operating to excuse James: and we may lament, but cannot in candour blame, when we perceive that prince persist to the last in the religion of his ancestors.’ Vol. ii. p. 361.

The war with England, which produced the death of James, is represented as the fruit of the intrigues of the clergy, who wished to prevent him from agreeing to the propositions of Henry. After trifling incursions on both sides, the duke of Norfolk invaded North-Britain with a considerable army, and committed unmanly ravages. James, finding the greater part of his nobles unfriendly to the war, dismissed his troops, and retired in disgust, as soon as he had heard of the departure of the invaders.

‘ To allay the anguish of his mind, the council, consisting chiefly of clergy, proposed to levy a small army of about ten thousand, to retaliate, by an invasion on the western marches, the injuries and disgrace inflicted by the arms of Norfolk. Maxwell was appointed to the command, a leader indeed firmly attached to the king; but, with their usual insatiation, the ministers of James joined with him Cassils, Glencairn, and other chiefs of the south and west, who favoured the English interest and the reformation, whereas those of the opposite party, however distant, ought to have been selected. The army advanced towards Solway firth, passed into English ground, and approached the river Esk, when Oliver Sinclair, the king's favourite, was elevated on shields, to read the royal commission, appointing the general and directing his procedure. A murmur arose among the disaffected that this minion was nominated  
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commander in chief: and the array, like a troubled sea, was instantly agitated by uproar, tumult; and disorder. Thomas Dacre and John Musgrave, two English leaders, had advanced at the head of three or four hundred men to observe the motions of the enemy; and perceiving their dissident fluctuation, and an incapability of defence arising even to panic, immediately charged their scattered battalions. A speedy flight completed the inglorious disaster. Among a thousand prisoners, taken by the English, were Glencairn, Caffils, Maxwell, Somerville, Gray, Oliphant, Fleming, with other chieftains of inferior note, who preferred a captivity in England to the chance of their sovereign's indignation.

James, in his impatience, had advanced to the castle of Car-laveroc, to learn with more speed the success of his arms. The repeated and cruel reverses of fortune at Fala, and at Solway, overcame a mind strong, but uncultivated by philosophy or experience, and yet untaught to cure the stings of disappointment with the balm of hope. The clouds of dishonour darkened around his magnanimous soul, hitherto long brightened with success and glory; and no ray pierced the horrid gloom of despair. In his eyes his reputation was irretrievably lost: and that loss a generous spirit cannot, would not, survive. He abhorred the upbraiding eyes of mankind; and sought refuge in the retirement of Falkland, where a burning fever preyed upon his frame. The birth of a daughter, the unfortunate Mary, afforded no solace; his anguish only answering the messenger, "It came with a girl, and it will go with a girl." Seven days after, the agonies of death seized the vigorous youth of the monarch. 'The cardinal,' (*Beton*) 'Argyle, Rothes, Erskine, Durie the physician, sir David Lindsay, and a few others were in the chamber. He looked placidly on them from his bed; kissed his hand, and reached it to their salutations and tears; then, with a gracious smile of forgiveness to all, he expired.' Vol. ii. p. 382.

In the retrospect of the state of Scotland during these two reigns, it is remarked, that the progress of that kingdom towards civilisation 'appears to have been *somewhat* more rapid than at any preceding period.' But the general state of the country was greatly inferior to that of England. A meagre account is given of the institutions, arts, manners, and habits of the people; not from the want of care and attention, but from the absence of copious materials.

Our perusal of this work has so far convinced us of its merit, that we recommend it as containing a more authentic history of the period to which it relates, than any prior publication. We wish that all historical writers had been equally attentive with Mr. Pinkerton to the investigation of fact. Too many historians, both of our own nation and of foreign states, have been content with a very imperfect portion of materials,

materials, when they might with little difficulty have obtained more ample supplies. They have been more eager to finish, than to improve, their respective works.

The style of the present history cannot claim that praise to which the statements are entitled. It is frequently harsh, uncouth, and incorrect; and, though the author occasionally aims at elegance, his efforts are too apparent, are sometimes degraded by affectation, and are generally weak and abortive.

*Poetic Effusions; Pastoral, Moral, Amatory, and Descriptive.*  
By William Perfect, M. D. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed.  
Crosby. 1796.

WE remember to have read, among the poets of former days, of *effusions* of milk and nectar—

‘*Flumina jam lactis, jam flumina nectaris, ibant;*’

but Dr. Perfect's *effusions* partake rather of the nature of milk and water. He has formed himself upon the model of Shenstone, whose particular thoughts he has likewise imitated very closely in several places. One half of this volume is filled by a poem entitled *The Months*. The idea is elegant. It is a sort of poetical calendar, and describes, in twelve different parts, the productions and other circumstances peculiar to the different months. Much of the imagery is pleasing; and the whole would be particularly adapted to young people, had the author made it his business to observe nature more, and Shenstone less. A circumstance which tends to enfeeble the poem, is the monotony of the measure, which is that of Shenstone's pastoral ballad, ‘*My banks they are furnished with bees,*’—a measure which suits very well a small piece, but becomes so extremely tiresome when the reader is carried in that cantering kind of pace through the greatest part of a volume (and most of the other poems are in the same stanza), that we have seldom found a book more difficult to get through. The following specimen from the month of April will show, that, notwithstanding these defects, the poem is not deficient in pleasing and appropriate description—

‘ And now shall this season of flow'rs,  
The cuckoo, new visitant, hail;  
Return to our green-twisted bow'rs,  
And tell his monotonous tale,  
While truants to pillage the nest  
Burst into recesses remote,  
Awhile in astonishment rest,  
Then mock her unmusical note,

‘ From

- ' From the firs that o'ershadow the grove,  
 The stock-dove in passionate lay,  
 Pours melting effusions of love,  
 When opens or closes the day.  
 The blackbird is up with the morn,  
 To serenade pierces the bush ;  
 Whilst music, more shrill from the thorn  
 Proclaims the delight of the thrush.
- ' Does the east brighten wide with the dawn,  
 The lark from her pillow of green  
 Ascends from the clove or the lawn,  
 Ambitiously lofty is seen ;  
 In vain do we follow her flight,  
 She mocks the pursuit of our eyes,  
 And sings from so distant a height,  
 She seems but a speck in the skies.
- ' How mutual's the toil of the day !  
 The rook and his loud-cawing mate,  
 The architect's labour display,  
 In skill most amazingly great ;  
 Enfork'd in the elm's lofty spray,  
 The branches entwisting among,  
 In cradles compacted of clay,  
 Securely they pillow their young.
- ' The chaffinch, mechanic, whose art,  
 The ox-eye alone can excel,  
 Where boughs in a thicket dispart,  
 Constructs her ingenious cell ;  
 Without, how enamell'd it seems !  
 How elegant ! artful ! and round !  
 Bestudded with moss, how it beams !  
 Within what invention is found !
- ' The wren, of rotundity fond,  
 Her ranelagh pins to the wall ;  
 The pollard reclin'd o'er the pond,  
 Or in thatch that projects from the stall.  
 Ye feather'd musicians of spring,  
 Your nests may no dangers annoy !  
 O may the fatigue of your wing  
 Your broodlings mature into joy !' P. 20.

The thought in the first stanza is, however, borrowed from some pretty lines on the cuckoo, where the school-boy—

- ' Starts, her curious voice to hear,  
 And imitates her lay.'

The rest of the poems are all in the pastoral style. The following little piece, though the construction in the first lines is very inaccurate, possesses some descriptive merit—

‘ The shatter’d maple sheds her yellow leaves,  
A matted carpet to the ploughman gives ;  
The ivy creeping on the alder’s back,  
The falling apple and the conic stack ;  
The magpie prating on the naked spray,  
Her plumage hov’ring in the solar ray ;  
The spire white gleaming thro’ the ‘minish’d shade,  
The hind reclining on his tardy spade ;  
The leafless walnut dripping o’er the road,  
The waggon groaning with the pond’rous load ;  
The massy wall of many a weed possess’d,  
The wealthy clown in fictitious velvet dress’d ;  
The close penn’d folds, the melancholy steed,  
The herds slow-winding o’er the ev’ning mead ;  
The ruin frowning o’er the cedars’ tops,  
The stubble, remnant of departed crops ;  
The blackbird scooping of the sable floc,  
The chesnut bending with the lonely crow ;  
The stagnate pool, thick cover’d o’er with sedge,  
The red-wing bursting from the berried hedge ;  
The vine’s bare tendril curling round the lath,  
The turnip mangled in the squalid path ;  
The footway scor’d with Colin’s plated shoe,  
Or patten-markt with circles not a few ;  
The pigeon feasting on the new sown dell,  
The red-breast twitt’ring on the cottage cell ;  
Are indications picturesque and clear  
That surly Winter’s come to rule the year.’ P. 146.

We beg leave to observe to Dr. Perceval, that he often accents words in a very unjustifiable manner, as *migrating*, *arbutus*, *unbounded*, *colonades*, *sérenade*, and uses many quaint words, as *y’cleped*, *subnivial*, *igniferous*, *streamless*, &c.

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*Precedents of Proceedings in the House of Commons ; under separate Titles. With Observations. Vol. IV. Relating to Conference, and Impeachment. 4to. 14s. Boards. Payne. 1796.*

IN discharging the duties of a very respectable situation \*, Mr. Hatfell has distinguished himself as a diligent and able servant of the public ; it is also a circumstance of encomium,

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\* That of clerk to the house of commons.



that the exertions of this gentleman have not been merely official, but that, in the capacity of an author, he has published many important legislative documents, which few persons could have equal opportunities of correctly communicating, and which the abilities of none could be more competent to illustrate.

This fourth and last volume of Mr. Hatsell's 'Precedents of Proceedings in the House of Commons' includes the titles 'Conference' and 'Impeachment.' Mr. Hatsell observes in his Preface—

'That, on the latter of these heads, he has, in some instances, been induced to deliver his opinion on questions of parliamentary law, more decidedly, than perhaps it was prudent for him to have done. He has however always endeavoured to express that opinion with diffidence; and, whenever he has presumed to form any conclusions, of what appeared to him to be the law of parliament, he has, at the same time, stated at length the particular cases and precedents, from whence these conclusions have been drawn.' P. v.

We approve of the diffidence and caution of the editor (as he modestly styles himself) on so delicate a topic; but we must at the same time observe that the very pertinent reflections and illustrations which accompany the detail of proceedings under the head 'Impeachment,' prove that Mr. Hatsell has exercised his judgment greatly to the advantage of the reader.

After quoting several high authorities by which the law and custom of parliament are recognised, Mr. Hatsell thus imparts the plan and the object of his labours—

'In forming an opinion of this work, it ought to be considered as a sort of Index to the Journals at large; intended to assist those members of parliament or other persons, who may be desirous of consulting the original records on these subjects. Whether it will be found to answer a still more important purpose, must be left to the judgment of the reader; perhaps it may not be too presumptuous to hope, that these researches, and the precedents here brought forward, may, in some degree, tend to give additional strength and support to those maxims and principles, which are the foundation of the British government—and which have hitherto maintained the balance of this justly admired constitution, as well against the weight of an undue exercise of the prerogative, or of the influence of the crown, as against the no less dangerous, though more plausible, attempts to extend the powers of the people, beyond what were claimed, at the memorable era of the revolution, to be, "the true, antient, and indubitable rights and liberties of the subjects of this kingdom," and which, by the Bill of Rights, were declared, enacted, and established, to stand, remain, and be, the law of the realm for ever.' P. vii.

The public are much indebted to Mr. Hatfield for such good intentions and judicious sentiments; and it is our sincere wish that the 'justly admired constitution,' to which he alludes, may escape the catastrophe with which, in the very critical circumstances of these times, it appears to be threatened by the dangerous extremes of anarchical turbulence, and unlimited confidence in the executive power.

That part of the volume before us which treats of 'Conferences,' is less interesting than the materials arranged under the title of 'Impeachment;' but as the *etiquette* between the two houses of parliament is of superior consequence to any other species of punctilious ceremony, we shall extract a few of Mr. Hatfield's observations on the subject —

'The conference, if it is upon the subject of a bill depending between the two houses, must be demanded by that house, which, at the time of asking the conference, is in possession of the bill; and though some of the more ancient precedents are of instances, where one house of parliament has demanded of the other their reasons for bringing in, or amending, or refusing to agree to, certain bills, these proceedings (as they were very properly declared to be irregular as long ago as the year 1575, in the case of lord Stourton's bill; and again in 1661, upon the bill for the execution of persons attainted of high treason) ought not to be followed as examples; because, instead of composing differences, which is the object of a conference, they tend rather to raise disputes, touching the privileges and independency of that house, of whom such reasons are demanded.

'The subjects, upon which it happens that conferences are most frequently demanded, are, where amendments have been made by one house to a bill passed by the other, to which amendments the house desiring the conference have disagreed; and the purpose of the conference is to acquaint the house which first made the amendments, with the reasons for such disagreement; in order that, after considering those reasons, the house may be induced, either not to insist upon their amendments, or may in their turn assign such arguments for having made them, as may prevail upon the other house to agree to them.

'Where, from inattention to the forms established upon this occasion between both houses, either house has sent a message that they disagree to amendments, and has not desired a conference to assign their reasons for such disagreement, we find that the bill has been re-delivered, "to the end that the due course of parliament in the transmitting of things of this nature may be observed." If the house, which amend the bill, are not satisfied and convinced by the reasons urged for disagreeing to the amendments, but persevere in insisting upon their amendments, the form is, to desire another conference;

conference; at which, in their turn, they state their arguments in favour of the amendments, and the reasons why they cannot depart from them; and if, after such second conference, the other house resolve to insist upon disagreeing to the amendments, they ought then to demand a "free" conference, at which the arguments on both sides may be more amply and freely discussed.—If this measure should prove ineffectual, and if, after several free conferences, neither house can be induced to depart from the point they originally insisted upon, nothing further can be done, and the bill must be lost.' P. 43.

' If the reasons, alleged on both sides, fail of their effect, to induce either house to desist from that measure, which is the subject matter of the conference, nothing remains but to hold a "free" conference; which admits a more liberal discussion of the question under consideration, and gives an opportunity for the managers, individually, and not restrained by any precise form of argument, to urge such reasons as appear to them to be of weight, to support the cause in which they are engaged, and what may best tend to influence the house to which they are addressed.' P. 48.

' After one free conference, no conference but a free conference can be holden touching the same subject; unless some question of privilege, or of the order of proceeding, should arise, from the conduct of any of the managers, or of either house to the other, or that some alteration should have been made in the matter, as it stood at the former free conference; in that case, a conference, not a free conference, may be demanded upon that particular matter.' P. 49.

The origin of the exercise of the power of impeachment by the commons, and its national influence, are thus described —

' It was not till towards the end of the reign of Edward III. that the house of commons took upon themselves the character of accusers, before the lords, of persons charged with treason, or other high crimes and misdemeanors against the state.—Though there are several instances upon the rolls of parliament, previous to the case of Richard Lyons in 1376, of judgments pronounced by the lords, as well against peers as commoners, for great public offences, yet these proceedings appear to have been instituted, either from the crown itself, or at the prayer of private persons, who found themselves aggrieved by the officers of the crown in high trust and power, and against whom they had no other redress than by application to parliament.—From the time that the commons became parties in these prosecutions, the instances were frequent, in which they found themselves obliged by their duty to carry up complaints

complaints to the lords, against persons of the highest rank and favour with the crown; or against those in judicial or executive offices, whose elevated situation placed them above the reach of complaint from private individuals, who, if they failed in obtaining redress, might afterwards become the objects of resentment of those, whose tyrannical oppressions they had presumed to call in question. This circumstance, therefore, of the commons assuming this invidious office, and, as the representatives of the people at large, standing forwards as the prosecutors of the highest and most powerful offenders against the state, forms a remarkable æra in the history of the criminal jurisprudence of this country: it has certainly very much contributed, in this kingdom, to controul and repress those acts of injustice and oppression, which, in more despotic governments, ministers, protected by their great rank, and overbearing power, are but too apt to exercise against persons who presume to offend them; and has been the means of bringing to condign punishment those "great apostates to the commonwealth," who, by their actions or counsels, have endeavoured to subvert the fundamental laws of their country, and to introduce an arbitrary and tyrannical government.' p. 62.

There is much truth and spirit in this passage; but it compels us reluctantly to contrast our degenerate sluggishness and apathy, with the zealous vigilance that formerly protected the rights and the property of Britons. It would be thought absurd to try a criminal by a jury of his accomplices: and may it not be asked, Where is now the boasted efficacy of impeachment? and whether a parliamentary reform be not imperatively necessary to restore to the commons the use of the tremendous but salutary power of 'bringing to condign punishment those *great apostates to the commonwealth*, who by their actions or counsels have endeavoured to subvert the fundamental laws of their country, and to introduce an arbitrary and tyrannical government?'

In his 'Observations on Bills of Attainder,' Mr. Hatfield excepts to an opinion expressed on the subject by a celebrated judge and commentator on the laws of England —

'Blackstone, in treating of the subject of parliamentary proceedings, says, "as for acts of parliament to attain persons of treason or felony, or to inflict pains or penalties beyond or contrary to the common law, to serve a special purpose, I speak not of them, being to all intents and purposes new laws made *pro re nata*, and by no means an execution of such as are already in being. — Whereas an impeachment before the lords, by the commons of Great Britain in parliament, is a prosecution of the already known and established law, and has been frequently put in practice; being a presentment, to the most high and superior court

of criminal jurisdiction, by the most solemn grand inquest of the whole kingdom." — If, by this mode of expression, that learned judge could be understood to insinuate an opinion, that this proceeding by bill is in no case expedient or proper; or that it would be more beneficial, that the highest and most daring criminals against the state should escape with impunity, on account of a defect of evidence, or the want of some particular form which would be necessary for their conviction in a court of law, rather than that their crimes should be brought to the consideration of parliament; and that there they should be amenable to justice, though "by a law made *pro re nata*, or (to use the more invidious expression) to serve a special purpose;" if this was his meaning, it appears to establish a doctrine, from which, if strictly adhered to, the public might receive much detriment. Although it is true, that this measure of passing bills of attainder, or bills of pains and penalties, has been used as an engine of power; and, in the reign of bad princes, has been frequently abused to the oppression of innocence, it is not therefore just to conclude, that no instances can occur, in which it ought to be put in practice. — Cases have arisen (and in a period since the true principles of liberty have been perfectly understood and carried into effect) and may again arise, where the public safety, which is the first object of all government, has called for this extraordinary interference; and, in such instances, where can the exercise of an extraordinary power be vested with more security, than in the three branches of the legislature? It should, however, always be remembered, that this deviation from the more ordinary forms of proceeding by indictment or impeachment, ought never to be adopted, but in cases of absolute necessity; and in those instances only, where, from the magnitude of the crime, or the imminent danger to the state, it would be a greater public mischief to suffer the offence to pass unpunished, than even to over-step the common boundaries of law: and, for the sake of substantial justice and the security of posterity, by an exemplary though extraordinary proceeding, to mark with infamy and disgrace, perhaps to punish with death, even the highest and most powerful offenders.' p. 89.

Our author (for Mr. Hatfell deserves the name) might with great propriety have omitted his comment on the words of Blackstone; the latter, as a *judge*, must have felt it his duty not to express peculiar respect for proceedings in such highly penal matters, otherwise than by the known laws of the land; and, as a *commentator*, it is obvious that his understanding taught him to suspect the constitutional efficacy of a measure which in so many instances has originated from a factious malignant fury, instead of a regard for public justice. Mr. Hatfell himself acknowledges this truth; and our history too amply supplies

plies the facts of which it is composed; — on some occasions, the feelings of justice may indeed strongly demand the punishment of a crime, unprovided for by the existing institutions of the country; but when it is considered that the character of legislative provisions should be grave and preventative, and that the freedom of a people greatly depends on the certain definition of offences and penalties, it must surely be deemed both indecorous and dangerous to give the *ex post facto* ebullitions of the most honourable resentment an authority coequal with the deliberative precautions of law.

The accurate and judicious manner in which Mr. Hatfell has performed his editorial task through the whole collection of precedents that he has given to the public, and the importance of the matter they contain, intitle him to a very considerable share of critical approbation. — From the valuable materials which compose the present volume, we would, with pleasure, have multiplied our extracts; but the text consisting of documents, which, however important, are not original, — and the notes and references being chiefly connected with those documents, — we have confined ourselves to some of the passages in the body of the work, where the editor expresses his opinion on the principles of the proceedings under discussion: there can be no doubt that Mr. Hatfell's collections and remarks will be found, what we think they are, highly worthy the attention of every British statesman, legislator, and private gentleman, who feels an interest in the most important functions of a most essential part of the government of his country.

*A Compendium of Practical and Experimental Farriery, originally suggested by Reason and confirmed by Practice. Equally adapted to the Convenience of the Gentleman, the Farmer, the Groom, and the Smith. Interspersed with such Remarks, and elucidated with such Cases, as evidently tend to insure the Prevention, as well as to ascertain the Cure of Disease. By William Taplin, Surgeon, Author of "The Gentleman's Stable Directory."* 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.

THE ignorance of that class of practitioners, to whose management the diseases of the horse were consigned before a veterinary college was instituted in this country, has been too notorious to escape the observation of any one who may have given the subject even a moment's consideration. Whilst this art, therefore, was practised without any regard to principles, and horses were 'doctored' (as was the term) at all events, by a set of beings scarcely equal to their four-

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legged patients in sagacity, it is not surprising that any attempt to ascertain how far the doctrines and practice of human surgery were applicable to the purposes of farriery, should be attended with some success, and the boldest adventurer in the experiment rewarded with some popularity. Where all is profound darkness, the merest taper will be sunshine. Mr. Taplin, certainly no luminary in veterinary science, gleamed, fortunately for himself, at this unusually propitious moment; and by proposing (in a language happily calculated, by its *frivolity*, to attract the gentlemen of the turf) to discard some of the most palpable errors of the country blacksmith, acquired a degree of attention more than adequate, in our opinion, to the merit displayed in any of his publications.

The work before us is introduced to the reader by what Mr. Taplin, with an affected transposition of words, calls an '*apology introductory*,' in which, after complaining of certain liberties taken with his great name by some one who has affixed it to a publication intitled '*Taplin improved*,' he proceeds to give his reasons for coming forward with this compendium, in the following *learned* and intelligible terms.

'Respecting' (says he) 'the publication of, and unsullied approbation bestowed upon my former volumes, some few remarks become absolutely necessary for the introduction of this; no one of which can perhaps prove more happily applicable than

"*Frustra laborat, qui omnibus placere studet.*"

so conspicuously depicted in the front of my *Operative Farriery*, that it seems to say (with very little classical variation)

"Vain his attempt who strives to please ye all,"

a motto by no means ill adapted to the public conduct of any individual in the kingdom; particularly to those whose professional efforts become dependent upon the capricious multitude for the honourable stamp of approbation.

'Under the influence of this reasoning it may be conceived, there are some, to whom those volumes may not have conveyed all that might have been introduced upon each subject individually; whilst on the contrary, others may have been instigated to believe, matters of little moment have been treated with too much prolixity; both promulgating their opposite opinions as influenced by caprice or disappointment.

'It may also have been urged, with at least the appearance of plausibility, that the voluminous expansion and consequent expence of the former work, had rendered it inaccessible to persons whose possessions were below the line of mediocrity; whereby its inten-

tional

donal utility has been contracted, and its circulation confined to persons of a certain description only.

‘ To wipe away these objections by reducing the various improvements and useful discoveries of six years successful practice (since the publication of “ *The Stable Directory*,”) to such scale of moderation as may come within the reach of every person interested in its contents, is the design of the present undertaking.’  
p. viii.

If Mr. Taplin means to recommend his present work by insinuating that every thing worthy of attention in his more voluminous performances is here brought into 270 pages, we do not in the least dispute the possibility of such a thing: but it at least demonstrates, on the part of Mr. Taplin, an enormous waste of paper and printing, and also that the contribution levied on the pockets of his former purchasers has been somewhat unreasonable.

Without stopping, however, to inquire into the truth of this representation, we shall proceed to give our readers a specimen of the work; for an analysis is impossible where little method or arrangement are observed, and where, in numberless instances, the language itself is unintelligible. That the author may not accuse us of any want of liberality, we submit to our readers an extract as much in his favour, perhaps, as any that the work will produce. He says —

‘ Upon the subject of acrimony in the blood, to prevent a renewal of it in a different part of the work, we may continue to observe, that there are other disorders arise from its uncontrolled continuance, as

#### HIDEBOUND, SURFEIT, and MANGE.

They are all of the same family, and in a great degree dependent upon each other, as may be readily conceived by giving the matter a concise elucidation.

‘ The blood acquiring a certain disproportion of acrimonious serum, by the means of short and bad aliment, as already explained; we are not erroneous in stating, that the longer it continues in the habit, without counteraction, the greater must be its effect in vitiating the original purity of the blood. Its power becomes consequently progressive, in direct conformity with the “ gradational shades of disease, as bad — very bad — worse — worst,” promulgated in the earlier pages of remarks, and may in the present instance be thus comprehended.

‘ A horse said to be hidebound, has an uncommon contracted tightness, and want of healthy pliability in the skin, which felt on either side, seems closely adhering to, and almost inseparable from the ribs; the coat is alternately smooth and staring in patches, and

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looking



looking at it in some directions it appears of different hues; the subject bearing the appearance of unmerited poverty, and by the usual hollowness of the eyes and dejection of spirits, displays evident signs of internal disquietude.

‘Great part of the former system prudently appertains to this,—bleeding in a moderate proportion is premised as the unavoidable prelude to altering the property of what remains; by changing the quantity, we gain one point towards altering the quality.’ p. 80.

Mr. Taplin must excuse us if we refuse our assent to this position. Would he think it a necessary preliminary, in treating a man for an œdema, or any other disease arising palpably from debility, to employ the lancet? The instructions next given sufficiently show the inconsistency of this doctrine—

‘Mashes’ (continues our author) ‘of the nutritive and comfortable kind follow of course; those mentioned in the preceding article, or in their stead if inconvenient, or hard to obtain, equal parts of oats and bran may be used, with six ounces or half a pound of honey in each: great exertions being made in regular dressings, to assist the circulation and open the pores for the transpiration of insensible perspiration.

‘The above appearance long neglected, assumes a different aspect, displaying some of those cutaneous eruptions, or partial losses of hair, that are distinguished by the appellation of furseit; to go largely into the investigation of which, would very far exceed the limits allotted to this subject, in a work contracted to a space for universal convenience. It must therefore suffice to say, like many other disorders, it varies in different objects, acting with more severity upon the habit of some than of others; the pustules, the irritation, and little lacerations increasing with the length of time it has been lurking in the frame, which progression of shades gives it to many the appearance of different disorders, though they are in fact only more prominent and advanced features of the same disease.

‘However the complexion may vary, the mode of cure is directly the same, it may be rendered complete by the leading traits just mentioned, throwing an alterative powder into the corn in the morning, and the mash at night for ten days or a fortnight; washing the lacerated parts, or pustules, every day with the following lotion:—Take,

‘Oil of tartar per deliquium, six ounces,

‘Soft water, two ounces.—Mix and keep stopped.’ p. 82.

Here Mr. Taplin displays a caution highly indicative of his chemical knowledge. ‘Oil of tartar per deliquium,’ itself a solution of kali produced by its power of attracting the moist particles

particles of the atmosphere, and diluted with a quantity of 'soft water,' is to be kept '*stopped!*' What the mixture is to gain by being stopped, or to lose by our failing to observe that injunction, we are at a loss to understand.

'Should the disorder have gained so much ground as to hold forth a probability of permanence, it will be right to continue the system of invigoration, till the subject is enough above the line of mediocrity to bear evacuants previous to his being put into work or strong exercise. In which case, two or three doses of the mild mercurial physic if a slight or blood horse, or the strong mercurial if a draft or heavy horse, had better be brought into use, than encounter the chance of farther disquietude. And this is a matter the more worthy attention when a previous remark is reconsidered "that the longer such acrimony remains unchecked in the habit, the more severe must be its effects." p. 83.

We must here observe, that no receipt is given for 'the mild mercurial,' nor 'the strong mercurial physic.' A paragraph at the end, however, fully instructs us that our horses need not die for the want of those and other valuable remedies, repeatedly directed in the course of the work,—for they may be had at his '*Equestrian Receptacle*' in Edgeware road.

'Tincture of myrrh,' (says Mr. Taplin)—'friars balsam,—extract of saturn,—(commonly called Goulard,) camphorated spirits of wine,—liquid laudanum,—olive oil,—yellow digestive, as well as camphorated spermaceti ointment,—fomentation herbs, dried in the summer and preserved for the winter,—a glyster pipe, or two, of proper dimensions, as well as an ox bladder or two to correspond,—a few purging,—cordial,—and diuretic balls, as well as for gripes or fææ, with some lint,—tow,—and flannel rollers of different lengths and breadths; all or any of which will be consigned to any part of England, by transmitting an order to the medical dispensary of the Receptacle.' p. 267.

Our readers, we hope, will pardon a digression so favourable to our author's apparent object in publishing this singular treatise. We now proceed with his remaining observations on the subject of '*acrimony*' in the blood.

'In conformity' (says he) 'with the consistency of this idea there cannot be the least doubt, but a cutaneous eruption, passing under the appellation of surfeit, (or in fact any other denomination) will, from its increasing power in every advanced stage, become doubly destructive in its progress, and soon degenerate into such general state of external morbidity,—excoriation or loss of hair, as is considered a rank and inveterate mange, however it may be differently named by different practitioners, in compliment to the

the sensations of their employers; some of whom perhaps may with difficulty reconcile it to their own ideas of liberality, to have so degrading a disorder appear upon the premises.

As it has been before observed, and will no doubt stand generally admitted, that these gradational shades of disease are all collateral branches of the same family, so it may be reasonably inferred, that the mange is, (death excepted) the very *ae plus ultra* of poverty; and as it seldom happens but to subjects of the most trifling value, so it is natural to conclude, very little expence indeed is encountered, or attention bestowed upon such occasions.

Conceiving however that much explanatory matter, and satisfactory information may be derived from the preceding stages and their annexed mode of treatment; it remains only to render such additional assistance as may prove proportionally powerful to counteract the same species of disease when advanced to so great a degree of inveteracy. Total extirpation cannot be expected by the use of internals only, where the integument has acquired a rigid callosity by the acrimonious irritation.

To obtund the former and allay the latter, are the leading steps to early obliteration. To effect both, — Take

Antimony, finely powdered, twelve ounces,

Sulphur, eight ounces,

Cream of tartar, four ounces.

Mix well together, and divide into twelve papers of two ounces each; of these let one be given in the feeds of corn, (or mashes) every night and morning.

During which course of alteratives, let every part of the frame, where there is the least appearance of eruption or excoriation, be patiently, and plentifully rubbed with a proper portion of the following unguent every other day. — Take

Sulphur vivum, six ounces,

White hellebore powder, four ounces,

Black pepper powdered fine, two ounces,

Stir these into twenty ounces of hog's lard, melted, but barely warm; and before it is quite cold add oil of tartar, per deliquium, four ounces, and let it be kept tied over with a bladder for use.

These means are sufficient to cure this disease without the least collateral aid and are calculated for those who wish to avoid expence, and to extend it only in proportion to the value of the object concerned; it is therefore necessary to observe, that where the subject is of considerable value, and a wish is entertained to hazard the less probability of a relapse, by altering the property of the blood when the horse has acquired a renewal of strength and vigour, no good reason can be advanced against a course of gentle mercurial phytic, with the necessary care and attention so frequently mentioned.' P. 84.

If the 'grains of wheat' in this compendium could be, with any proper degree of facility, separated from the vile 'chaff' which involves them, we should gladly yield Mr. Taplin the degree of praise which he honestly merits. We should say, that he has done something, though by no means every thing (as he wishes to insinuate), towards snatching that noble animal, the horse, from the brutal hands of the blacksmith, and treating some of his diseases on rational principles. But when we consider this volume as the production of a man educated to practise the art of *surgery*, and who has practised that art on his fellow creatures, we are compelled to say it falls infinitely short of what might reasonably have been expected.

We shall take our leave of Mr. Taplin, by observing that the vehement censures he bestows on the exhibition of tartarised antimony in large doses, betray his ignorance of the laws of the animal economy in the horse. Mr. Coleman, the judicious professor of the veterinary college, will inform him, if he will take the trouble to inquire, that the analogy between the human subject and the horse does not in this instance apply. It will appear that crude antimony, which, in the former, proves inert in almost any dose, has, in the latter, a very powerful effect; and that, *mutatis mutandis*, the same fact obtains with regard to antimony, when in a tartarised form.

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*The Rural Economy of the West of England: including Devonshire, and Parts of Somersetshire, Dorsetshire, and Cornwall. Together with Minutes in Practice. By Mr. Marshall. (Concluded from p. 28.)*

MR. Marshall's agricultural excursions in the former volume were confined to the more cultivated districts of his survey. In the present, he begins with the mountainous tracts of Cornwall and Devonshire, the observations on which, he tells us, have been made in different ways. Those relative to the former, in an excursion made for the purpose of obtaining general ideas respecting these remote parts of the country; but those relating to *Dartmore* and its uncultivated environs, arose *incidentally* without any fixed plan of survey.

'Indeed,' (says he) 'these wild uncultivated lands resemble, so much, the mountainous parts of Scotland, and the north of England, on which the broad lines of nature remain unobliterated, that a minute examination was the less required, by one who has been accustomed to read her works; and whose only desire, in this instance, was to extract a few leading facts.' Vol. ii. p. 2.

This Cornish excursion was made by *Callington* and *Lefkard* to *Bodmin*, returning by *Launceston* and *Tavistock*. In this journey we meet with few remarks of importance. The state of husbandry seems, in many respects, above mediocrity. It may also be observed, that here, as well as in many other places, though the practice of *burning the soil* be *theoretically* condemned, it is generally employed by the farmers, who consider it as an advantageous process.

The reflections of our author on the means of improving Dartmore and the uncultivated lands that surround it, are equally judicious and interesting. He thinks them of 'a species similar to the moors of Yorkshire, and the mountains of Perthshire,' and that the best modes of improving them would be the following —

' In the improvement of the higher lands, the leading objects appear, to me, to be wood and herbage. Their climature, I apprehend, unfits them for the profitable production of corn: and a want of manure is another bar to this species of produce. Nevertheless, there may be dips and unreclaimed vallies, which, as limited home grounds, might admit of a course of arable management.

' But speaking generally of these lands, the first means of improvement appears to me, to be that of planting, or otherwise covering with wood, the stony surfaces: not more to encrease the value of these particular parts, than to improve the climature of the whole. The birch, the mountain forb, and the larch, if judiciously propagated, would flourish, I apprehend, on the bleakest exposures.

' To improve the herbage of the freer surface of these exposed lands, various means might be suggested.

' Running high fence mounds across the current of the south-west winds, and planting them with birch, mountain forb, elder, holly, furze, broom, &c. in the Devonshire manner; but making the top of the mound hollow, or concave, to collect and retain moisture, and to screen the young plants, or seedlings, in their tender state. It were impossible, perhaps, to conceive a better fence, for bleak mountain lands, than the ordinary hedge of Devonshire. The mound is an immediate fence and shelter; and the coppice wood, as it grew up, could not fail, from its relative height above the adjoining lands, to improve their climature; and encourage, in a particular manner, the growth of herbage; beside being, at the same time, singularly friendly to pasturing stock. The only doubt, as to the propriety of raising such fences, across the bleak lands of Dartmore, lies in the expence of doing it: for, great as the positive advantages would doubtless be found, — if the expence of raising them overbalanced these advantages, such means

means of improvement would be altogether ineligible to be prosecuted, by individuals, however profitable the effect might be to the public. The freer, better soiled parts of Dartmore, I am of opinion, would pay individuals, amply, for this cardinal improvement.' Vol. ii. p. 30.

And for the purpose of changing their present produce to a more advantageous pasturage either in the open or inclosed state, other means are suggested, such as *burning off the heath* of the black moory parts, and pasturing them hard with sheep. *Sod burning* the more loamy soils, sowing *rape and grass seeds*, and folding off the produce with sheep, would, he also supposes, be ready means of meliorating the herbage.

' If,' (says he) ' by the intervention of hedge mounds, the climate of these hills could be rendered sufficiently genial for the maturation of rape seed, and should their soils be found sufficiently productive of this valuable crop, the propriety of erecting such fences would no longer remain doubtful; as a full crop of this grain would amply repay any reasonable expence that could be incurred by inclosing; and the inclosure would amply recompense the loss, which the soil could sustain, from the exhaustion of one grain crop: grass seeds being, in course, sown with the rape seed, or over the plants in the spring; or a due portion, at either season.

' By draining the springy slopes of hills, and perhaps some of the peatbogs, the produce of those parts might be very materially improved.

' By watering such parts of the lower slopes as can command water, the herbage, perhaps, might be essentially bettered. But very much would depend on the quality of the water; and this experience would readily prove.

' By manuring, something might doubtless be done, towards the melioration of the herbage. The vegetable mold of the peatbogs, either in a crude recent state, or in the state of charcoal, or in that of ashes, would, with moral certainty, be found serviceable to the loamy soils. And earthy substances, which, if sought for, might doubtless be found, could not fail of producing beneficial effects, on the black moory lands. It is needless to add, that if lime could be brought to these lands, at a moderate expence, there would be little risque in the free use of it. With its powerful aid, even corn might be produced, on many of the lands under notice; but whether with eventual advantage, either to the proprietor or the public (unless on a small scale), is a matter of great uncertainty.' Vol. ii. p. 33.

In the state of improvement here suggested, Mr. Marshall considers the most profitable *stock* for such lands to be *young cattle, sheep, and rabbits.*

In

In attempting the improvement of the *lower grounds*, the first step should, he says, be to convert to wood-land such parts as are improper for cultivation, and to raise *coppice hedges* across the line of the most mischievous winds, as screens to the culturable grounds. In a climature thus improved, and with a sufficient supply of lime at a reasonable price, the author supposes that a considerable proportion of these flat lands might be profitably subjected to a course of arable management. This cannot, however, be successfully attempted without a copious supply of lime, or some other calcareous substance.

The view which our ingenious author has taken of North Devonshire is by no means so full or so satisfactory as those of many other districts. The remarks on different circumstances and practices of this part of the country are frequently trifling and unimportant; and the descriptions of them often much too short for utility.

The fifth district is the Vale of Exeter, which resembles very much the other parts of Devonshire. On this account, it is probable, Mr Marshall has passed over it without entering into any very minute inquiries respecting the particular customs and modes of rural management which prevail.

The *dairy* district of West Dorsetshire is examined with more minuteness, and with greater attention to the different objects of rural management. The hints suggested for the improvement of various agricultural practices, in this part of the author's survey, are equally interesting with those that have been proposed in other parts of the writings of this ingenious and accurate observer. We may notice a few of them.

On the plan of farm management, the directions of Mr. Marshall are these —

'Some alteration,' (says he) in the arable department of management, seems to be wanted. The temporary leys are mostly foul, weak, and thin of herbage; owing, doubtless, to the practice of taking two or three grain crops, in succession, and laying the land down in a state of exhaustion, as well as foul, and out of tilth. Perhaps taking a crop of beans, in rows well cleaned, between the wheat and the oat crop, might be found doubly beneficial; as introducing a species of produce, new to the soil; and serving to prepare it for the reception of the grass seeds, by a fallow crop. In cases where the soil is very foul, a whole year's fallow is, of course, requisite.' Vol. ii. p. 156.

With regard to the improvements of the soil, he also thinks two or three things wanting, such as *under draining*  
both

both of the higher and lower lands, and a different method of *laying it down to grass*.

‘In West Devonshire,’ (he observes) ‘where the subsoil is absorbent, and the soil friable and firm, it is perfectly right to lay it down, as flat and smooth as possible. But, here, where the soil is tenacious, and the subsoil retentive, and much of it kept in continual furchase, by the waters pent up beneath it, the practice is in a degree absurd. Nevertheless the practice of these two distant districts, with respect to the depositing, or forming the surface of their soils, with the plow, to receive the given crops, is precisely the same. For wheat, the soil is gathered up into narrow ridges; and is laid flat, for every other crop.

‘The improvement which strikes me, as proper to be proposed for this district, is that of keeping the land in ridges, of half a statute rod in width, for every crop; or of preserving the present narrower ridges for wheat, and throwing two of them together, for beans, oats, and ley herbage: being ever mindful to form the surfaces of the ridges gently convex, to shoot off the superfluous rain water which falls on them; with deep narrow interfurrows, to receive the water; and with cross trenches, to convey it away, to the neighbouring ditches and common shores: a principle of management, which is applicable to all cool retentive soils, in the island.’ Vol. ii. p. 159.

The remarks under the head ‘Manures’ are also equally just and important.

The Vale of Taunton and its neighbourhood form the next station of our author; but we do not meet with much novelty of remark, either in the account of this district, or that of the journey through Somersetshire, which succeeds it; for the deficiencies of the latter, the author has, however, properly made an apology.

The remaining part of the volume comprehends Mr. Marshall’s *Minutes* of the practical management in the different districts of his survey. These are extremely important, both as conveying useful hints for the general improvement of the practice of farming, and for correcting those absurd modes of cultivation which are too often disadvantageously employed by the inexperienced husbandman.

We are, however, sorry to be under the necessity of observing, that in some instances Mr. Marshall’s intentions are scarcely intelligible, from the brevity of his method of detailing them.

In order to show the author’s manner of forming these *Minutes*, we shall insert one or two of the shortest of them, as being the best calculated for our purpose —

‘Decem-



‘ December 10. The only useful idea I have been able to collect, from the late manager of this farm, is his method of cutting garden cabbages.

‘ Instead of clearing the stalk or stem from the lower leaves, and cross-slitting the crown or top of the stalk, in the usual manner; — he cuts out the body of the cabbage, only; letting all the open, large, spreading leaves, remain upon the stem.

‘ The consequence is a second, and perhaps a third, crop of cabbages; not one, but many, upon a stem; forming, by the third crop, a cabbage tree. There are now, in the garden of this place, several stems, with four, five, or more well-sized table cabbages on each: and, applied to field cabbages, which are cut early, the principle may be a good one. The old leaves continue to draw up the sap, until vigorous shoots are formed; when they are observed to droop, decay, and fall at the foot of the plant; being, perhaps, in every stage of their decay, useful to the young progeny; in shading the ground, in keeping down the weeds, and in furnishing a supply of mephitic gas to their rising offspring: advantages which are lost, in the ordinary method of treatment. Many of the plants are killed by the sudden check of the sap, and those which survive, throw out numerous, and of course, weak shoots; few of them swelling to any size, or taking the cabbage form.’ Vol. ii. p. 300.

On destroying insects, he makes the following minute —

‘ September 30. The florists of this district have an effectual and ready way of destroying earth worms, in their knots and borders; by the means of an infusion of walnut-tree leaves. The process is this: — fill a vessel nearly full, with leaves, gathered in the first or second week of September; — cover them with water, and let them stand two or three days, until the water has acquired a blackish green color. With this infusion, the beds and alleys are watered, by means of the common watering pot. The worms presently rise to the surface, and die in apparent agony.

‘ It strikes me that this interesting fact may be turned to a profitable purpose, in the forming of drinking pools. It is probable, that leaves of the walnut, spread under the clay, would have the same effect as the lime, which is now in use.

‘ Reflecting on this subject, it appears to me further probable, that the use of clay, in making pools, may be dispensed with. Thus: — form the basin; puddle with the best of the excavated mold; strew on leaves; and pave with liquid mortar; made up with their infusion, — if required.

‘ The basin form of the pit is an objection to puddling; and could not, perhaps, be effected otherways, than progressively with the pavement; by puddling above each ring, and bedding the stones in the medicated matter; pouring in liquid cement, where it might

might appear to be wanted. Or, perhaps, the medicated batter would in itself be sufficient.

'This is a subject of great importance, in upland situations. Forming drinking pools with clay and lime (great as was the discovery) is difficult and expensive; and any means of simplifying the process would be valuable.' Vol. ii. p. 315.

On the whole, the intelligent farmer may derive much practical information from the work before us, and be made acquainted with many peculiarities in the modes of husbandry employed in the west of England, where they seem yet to have assimilated but little with those of the country in general.

*Sketch of a Political Tour through Rochester, Chatham, Maidstone, Gravesend, &c. Including Reflections on the Tempers and Dispositions of the Inhabitants of those Places, and on the Progress of the Societies instituted for the Purpose of obtaining a Parliamentary Reform. By John Gale Jones. Part the First. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Jordan. 1796.*

THE Corresponding Society, against which the powers of government have been employed to very little purpose, and which has often created an alarm with very little foundation, still continues, if we may believe its members, to make proselytes to the doctrine of annual parliaments and universal suffrage, by establishing societies in various parts of the kingdom, which correspond, as the name implies, with the principal society of London. While they confine their labours to the enlightening of their fellows in political knowledge, and encourage only legal and peaceable means of redress, we believe they have nothing or but little to fear from the open violence of their enemies; but the pamphlet before us is a proof how much they have to dread from their friends. The force of ridicule is likely to do them more harm than cartloads of informations and indictments: and while they employ such missionaries as John Gale Jones, we cannot but think they will be sufferers. Perhaps, indeed, although they employed Mr. Jones to visit their societies in Kent, and inspect the progress of their sentiments in Rochester, &c. they might not be aware, nor sanction the publication of a pamphlet, where the author's intention was far more directed to gratify his own vanity, than to give the world a sober narrative of the progress of political opinion. And this, we think, must have been the case with the society: for although, in a letter to their secretary, he says of one of the meetings to which he was invited —

'It

'It is impossible for me to do more than give you a faint sketch of what passed, nor would it, indeed be delicate to record transactions in which I was so materially concerned' (P. 110.)

yet the moment he sits down to write this Tour, all his delicacy vanishes, and he gives us no transactions in which the consequential *I* is not the principal figure.

From the awful solemnity of his departure, one would think he was to follow Bruce to Abyssinia, or Vaillant to the Nimi-quas, instead of going to Rochester for a few days.

'The love of novelty, however powerful an ingredient in the human disposition, yields for a while to the gloom of parting friendship, and the traveller, like the schoolboy, with a heavy sigh bids a melancholy adieu to his long-accustomed home.' P. 2.

His companion seems to partake of the melancholy of this last interview. After a cordial shake of the hand,—

"Gale," (said he) "I commit you to the mercy of the *wide world*; I hope they will use you well."—This last observation' (says Mr. Jones) 'was superfluous; for when did the *world* ever contribute to the happiness of man? But it was well meant, and I thanked him, *almost with tears* in my eyes.' P. 3.

The actual departure is thus narrated—

'At nine o'clock, A. M. in a convenient coach, with six tolerable horses, the Deputy of the London Corresponding Society set out from the Blossoms Inn, Lawrence-lane.' P. 4.

The conversation turned upon politics; and the deputy made a notable discovery,—no less than that 'sophistry and error may find sufficient advocates and supporters, *even in a stage coach*!' Having forgotten the name of the inn at Dartford, where they alighted, he draws upon his wit for the deficiency of his memory, and informs us, that '*it might be* the King's Head, or the Blue Boar, or the George Inn, or some such *nonsensical* sign.' On the road hence, he pities a sensible young man who was going abroad on foreign service, and gives us a trait of himself, as an apology for his sympathy.

'I am convinced I am a fool, and perhaps need not declare it; but so it is; I am always interesting myself about other people's affairs, regardless of my own, and exciting contempt and hatred where I expect to find commiseration and regard.' P. 6.

But, with submission to Mr. Jones and the Shandean school, of which, in this Tour, he affects to be a pupil, we must enter our protest against men who are regardless of their own affairs, because *that* generally incapacitates them from attending much to the affairs of other people. No hostility is so

*extensive*

extensive as that of the man who is 'nobody's enemy but his own.'

On entering Rochester the coachman drove so fast as to frighten the ladies; but Mr. Jones informs us that he has sometimes ventured to express a desire to be overturned, 'curiosity being an active principle in the human mind!' Soon after his arrival in this place he is attacked by two informers,—an incident which gave him an opportunity to indulge himself in '*profound speculations*;' the whole of which, however, terminate in a more exalted opinion of his own vast consequence, who came to Rochester in an 'official capacity;' and this being 'an alarming project to administration,' they 'would leave nothing untried to render his mission abortive.'

Here a worthy *citizen* accommodates him with apartments in his house, which Mr. Jones the more readily complied with, as he 'could be secure from the unwelcome intrusions of impertinent curiosity.'

'A fresh-coloured and pleasing young woman, the wife of the *citizen* at whose house I was to be accommodated, made her appearance, and said she hoped I should find every thing comfortable. "It was not very fine," she observed with a *sigh*, which I readily returned, "but you have a hearty welcome; and I have a good wholesome bed, thank God!" "It's well you are allowed *that*," thought I: "it would perhaps be high treason to say you deserve more; though industry and good-nature like yours surely deserve to be better rewarded." P. 21.

The first meeting of the society affords an opportunity for egotism of a higher order—

'About eight o'clock I adjourned to the above place, when I was introduced to a numerous meeting of the society. It would not be easy, nor would it perhaps be proper to convey an idea of the effect which this visit had upon the members. Their curiosity was visibly marked upon their countenances. *Upon my entrance they all rose with one accord, and the deputy of the London Corresponding Society was ushered to the right hand of the president, amidst the unbounded plaudits of the whole assembly.*' P. 22.

Mr. Jones, who has printed these lines in *italics*, assures us, that he mentions these circumstances, not as giving *him* any peculiar pleasure or any personal gratification, but because he is 'anxious that the friends of liberty here may know in what estimation they are held in the country, &c.' After this meeting was over, he took a slight supper, 'and retired to bed, harassed and worn out with the fatigues of the day!'—In his account of Rochester, he informs us of a visit to the circulating library, kept by an intelligent and worthy young man

man who is a friend to reform; and therefore Mr. Jones will not mention his *name*, although he has pointed him out pretty plainly. Here he is beset by a spy belonging to the post-office; and his friend the library-keeper gives him due caution.

On a walking expedition to Gillingham, he brings himself yet more forward in the grouse —

‘ I grew fatigued, and just as we had reached the village was so much exhausted that I was obliged to sit down on a stone step to prevent me from fainting. The tender solicitude which was shewn by the worthy *citizens*, the celerity with which one of them flew to get some wine for my relief, and the friendly respect and civility with which all of them treated me, raised within me the most *exquisite sensations*. A crowd of ideas rushed at once upon my mind, and almost overpowered me. I was a stranger to them but from report, yet they reposed implicit confidence in me: I had shewn *them* no singular acts of kindness, and yet they treated *me* with the most unbounded humanity and benevolence.’ p. 39.

No writer has a happier knack at magnifying common occurrences into matters of great importance than Mr. Jones; and without it, indeed, we fear he never could have eked out his pamphlet. At Gillingham he met ‘our medical friend,’ who entreated him ‘to lean on his shoulder.’ This medical friend was an intelligent man and a democrat, ‘for good sense and democracy are generally considered as synonymous.’ Unfortunately, however, this *sensible* democrat ‘kept two or three large dogs, and was himself rather *dogmatical* in his opinions!’

But our readers are probably tired of this eternal round of self-importance. We shall therefore add only one more passage.

‘ While I was busily engaged in the amusement of the festive scene’ (*the ball-room*), ‘I was informed that some persons wished to speak with me. I went, and found the secretary of the Rochester society, attended by some strangers, who came to inform me that a deputation had just arrived from the *citizens* at Luton, who wished for my company on the next evening, and would spare no expence or accommodation if I would comply with their request. I desired him to convey my grateful acknowledgments for this obliging mark of civility, but *having strong doubts of the propriety of making promises*, begged them *not to expect me*. When I returned to the room, I could perceive that this little incident, trifling as it may appear, had excited the attention of the assembly. Their looks and gestures evinced their suspicion that something extraordinary must have happened. Secrecy and mystery are two very powerful incentives to human curiosity. They flatter the consequence, and soothe the vanity of man; while undisguised sincerity, and unreserved communication,

munication, are almost always undervalued or despised. Being a stranger to most of the company, I left them to divine the *cause* of my *temporary absence*, and imagine, if they pleased, some wonderful conspiracy, and continued to enjoy the pleasures of "the light, fantastic toe," till near the usual hour of departure, when, *quite exhausted with fatigue and indisposition*, I got into a chaise which waited for me, and, having arrived at my place of abode, retired to rest, not without many pleasing reflections on the entertainment I had this evening experienced.' P. 58.

The other prominencies of this political tour are — his visit to the prison-ships, on which occasion one of his fellow *citizens* observed that the Ville de Paris 'would make a fine *national ship*,' — his conversation with the French prisoners, — the story of a beadle in Gravesend church, — hints at a love affair, — and his singing, 'Go, George, we can't endure ye,' &c. &c.—The Appendix consists of a few letters to *citizens*, and the instructions of the Corresponding Society, in which there are fewer objects pointed out than their deputy thought proper to include in this report of his mission, which altogether is such a tissue of vanity and impertinence, as would disgrace any cause.

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*Tithes politically, judicially, and justly considered. Addressed to the Clergy of the University of Cambridge; with Strictures upon the Farnham Hop-bill; in which the Necessity of a general Commutation of Tithes is demonstrated, Modes of Commutation are proposed, and the proper Measures pointed out for obtaining such as may meet the public Will. By a Pluralist. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Marfom.*

WE cannot give a more distinct view of this tract, than by presenting to the reader its summary of contents —

' Chap. I. The nature and great national importance of religion. — The necessity of religious instructors and their duty. — The present utility of the clergy, and the further services they might be enabled to render the community, if liberally supported. — The injustice and impolicy of taxing the property of the church.

' Chap. II. Tithes considered as the revenue for support of the parochial clergy. — The nature of tithes, &c. — The seizure of tithes and church-lands by William I. — Suppression of monasteries by Henry VIII. — The introduction of lay-impropriations and the subsequent injuries received by the church from the legislative appointment of money-payments in lieu of tithes in kind.

' Chap. III. Moduses — Their nature and origin.

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' Chap.

'Chap. IV. Instances in which money-payments and other modes, in lieu of tithes, are countenanced and encouraged by courts of justice. — Various kinds of tithe considered, particularly agiltment-tithe. — Opinions of counsel on this subject, with strictures thereon. — The propriety of allowing exclusive courts for the administration of civil rights with respect to the clergy. Observations on the practice of the present courts, &c. — Consequences naturally resulting from the mutilated rights of the clergy, &c. &c.

'Chap. V. Justice — Strictures on the means adopted for the establishment of customs and prescriptions against the rights of the church. The usual and legal proceedings as to expence, delay, and consequent oppression. — Hardships and difficulties peculiar to the clergy in maintaining their rights. — Reflections on the propriety of some more summary mode of proceeding. — Unfair advantages allowed the laity in these contests. — Prejudices of juries. — Expence of commissions out of chancery. — Combinations. — Observations on non-residence and the general oppression of the clergy both in England and Ireland, &c. &c.

'Chap. VI. The necessity of a commutation in lieu of tithes further urged, and plans and regulations proposed, &c. — Observations on the late provisions made for the clergy in Canada. — The necessity of a provision for superannuated clergy and their families, &c. — On the corn-laws, and the general oppression of the present state of the law of tithes upon all parties. — Popular clamors against the clergy answered and refuted, particularly as to pluralists, with observations on civil pluralists. — Calculations as to the incomes of the clergy, individually and collectively. — Alterations and amendments proposed. — The present state of tithes compared with the former state of the revenue of the crown. — Claims of the clergy upon the justice of the country, and the objects pointed out for which they ought to petition parliament.

'Chap. VII. Plans of commutation proposed and previous measures necessary to be adopted, with conclusive observations as to the necessity of the measure and the author's object and view.'

The bill which gave birth to this publication, has long been gone to its own place; but in the consultations that were holden preparatory to it, a circumstance came out, not generally known. The Farnham committee, the better to accomplish their aim, invited all other hop-growers to join them; but when the price of commutation was proposed, those of Kent in particular declined, — alleging, that, in their county, the tithe of hops being *vicarial*, the practice in compounding was to propose terms (far below what the Farnham men offered), and which the vicar was compelled to accept, under a threat, on refusal, of converting their lands to corn, and thus changing the tithe to *rectorial*, excluding the vicar from his claim.

As to this author's favourite topic, *commutation*, we conceive it to be pregnant with such injustice and mischief, as to hope it will never take place. We already have stated, what we conceive to be *unanswerable* objections against it; and many others might still be advanced. It is certain, that, though the clergy at present might be benefited by it, on the whole it would produce pernicious effects. The tenantry of the kingdom would be essentially hurt; but a greater evil than all would be the admission of the legislature for the time being to be the lords paramount of the soil: thus, by conceding to them the right of disposing of the permanent property of one class, *in perpetuum*, of the community, and that the best established, as being the most ancient *peculium* of the kingdom, it would incontrovertibly follow, the rest must be equally liable to the exercise of their will. It is not for the clergy, as an ecclesiastical establishment, we contend; nor as having any claim, upon the ground of *a divine right*, to the property they hold; but as possessed of property by the same right that all others, whether corporate bodies or individuals, are proprietors, only on a basis antecedent to the rest, and which, if once subverted or disturbed, must involve *all the REALTY of the REALM in its RUIN*.

We will here correct a mistake into which we have been led through misinformation. A late pamphlet on tithes \*, to the review of which we have alluded, was ascribed by us to the late vice-chancellor of Cambridge; but upon better grounds we learn it should be given to the reverend Dr. BELWARD, master of Caius.

J. C. has our thanks for correcting the error.

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*Hortus Botanicus Gippovicensis; or, a Systematical Enumeration of the Plants cultivated in Dr. Coyte's Botanic Garden at Ipswich, in the County of Suffolk; also, their essential Generic Characters—English Names—the Natives of Britain particularized—the Exotics where best preserved, and their Duration; with occasional Botanical Observations. To which is added, an Investigation of the Natural Produce of some Grass-lands in High Suffolk.* 4to. 10s. 6d. sewed. B, and J. White. 1796.

A MERE catalogue of plants, however interesting to the owner, can hardly be deemed a proper object of literary criticism. The present work is of this description; we can,

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\* See Crit. Rev. Vol. XVI. p. 374, Vol. XVII. p. 58.



therefore, only observe, that, in respect to classification, it seems to be tolerably accurate; and that the observations of the author, though few, are in general correct.

The first class affords a good specimen of the manner in which the work is executed; but is much too long for insertion here.

At the end of the collection, we meet with an investigation into the natural produce of some of the grass-lands in high Suffolk. This inquiry, which is of the experimental kind, was made on such lands as have not been ploughed up in the memory of their oldest occupier, and is meant to show botanically the different species of grasses, and other plants, as well as their relative proportions to each other.

‘In order to ascertain this’ (says the author) ‘from different parts of such lands, I had four large plats of *Tannington-Green* brought to me in the winter, taken as far distant from each other as the common (which contains nearly two hundred acres) would properly admit of, and carefully planted near my residence, that whatever plant made its appearance might be constantly under examination, and minuted down at the time of its coming up.

‘What led me principally to this inquiry was to come at some degree of knowledge of the pasture for the cows on these dairy farms, that the grasses, and other plants, or the assemblage of the whole together might be discovered, for the benefit perhaps of occupiers and owners of lands in other counties; as the butter made in this part of the county of Suffolk, is acknowledged to be of most excellent quality, and by some thought superior to that of any other. The collective knowledge, therefore, of the natural produce of these lands, and the easy method of procuring the grass-seeds found here, may render this inquiry of some use and benefit in agriculture. For the characters of many of the plants I met with, I have quoted my worthy friend, the author of *Flora Londinensis*.’

p. 141.

The following is the account of the different periods at which the different grasses made their appearance —

‘In April, the *hairy wood-rush* was the first plant observed in flower — It is a very early, soft, and a sweetish grass. “The appearance of this plant indicates a dry, and consequently not very luxuriant pasturage;” but it is met with oftentimes in some of the richest pasture lands we know of.

‘The *common daisy* was found in great plenty — “The encomium of the ancients on this plant may not be too exaggerated, and the enamelled meads and daisied carpets by being a little more attended to, may prove useful, as well as beautiful.”

‘The *common dandelion* “is a plant by many used as one sort of salad,

fallad, and has proved of service in removing obstructions of the viscera, and urinary passages, and probably may be providentially interspersed in our pasture grounds for the benefit, as well as nutriment of cattle." A mild, cool, lenient diuretic (as the *dandelion* is) has often removed diseases of cattle, much better and much faster than the medicines we have from the farrier.

' In the beginning of May the *meadow orchis* made its appearance. At this time also the *sepifoil* or *tormentil* appeared — "A plant," as Mr. Curtis observes, "of considerable importance in rural œconomy and medicine. The roots are used in most of the Western Isles, and in the Orkneys, for tanning of leather; in which intention they are proved by experiments to be superior even to the oak bark. They are first of all boiled in water, and the leather afterwards steeped in the cold liquor." Fl. Lond. *Tormentilla* root is a strong and almost flavorless astringent. The extracts obtained by inspissation are intensely styptic.

' The next production in May was the *vernal sweet-scented grass* — easily distinguished by its taste of new-made hay, and grows in most pasture lands; cattle are fond of it, and it is one of our most valuable grasses. "There is great reason to believe that this is one of our grasses which might be cultivated with considerable advantage: its appearance is early in the spring, and should seem to be a proper grass to sow with others in laying down meadow-land, and probably the *common meadow-grass*, with the seeds also of the *meadow fescue grass* joined to it, would form a mixture, the produce of which would for this purpose be superior to those of most others."

' The *upright meadow crowfoot* next appeared — "Most of the *crowfoots*," Mr. Curtis observes, "are acrid, but this particularly so, for which reason Linnæus might annex the trivial name of *acris*. Cattle will not readily eat it. When made into hay it loses its acrid property, but becomes too stalky to afford much nourishment. It grows too frequently in our pasture lands, and should be rooted out as much as possible. It is frequently called *butter-cups*, and this name originated from a supposition that the yellow colour of butter was owing to these plants; butter however made in the spring of the year receives an unpleasant taste from it, but loses it in salted firkin butter, when used in the winter."

' About this time appeared three small plants of the *vernal carex*: many plants also of the *narrow-leaved plantain* — "This is considered by farmers to be so good for cattle, that in laying down land for pasture, the seed of it is mixt with hay-seed, and sold for that purpose."

' The *purple trefoil* or *clover* came next into view — A very valuable plant, and fortunately for Europe found wild throughout.

' The *Dutch clover* near the end of May appeared in flower — "This may be considered as one of our most valuable British

plants; the greatest part of the seed used in this country is imported from Holland, where it is cultivated on account of its seed, and from hence has acquired the name of *Dutch clover*," Mr. Curtis has known that one seedling of this plant cultivated in a garden, has covered more than a yard square in the course of a summer, (which last year I was witness to), and he observes, that its excellence much consists in its producing herbage in dry summers, and late in the season, when most of the other grasses are burnt up; and that it covers the fields with a beautiful verdure, and affords plenty of food for cattle, or hay for a second crop.

' The *rough-stalk'd grass* now made its appearance — It is like the *smooth-stalk'd meadow grass*, but very different in its quality; it is very productive, but rather a tender grass. It is found in great plenty in that famous productive meadow near Salisbury, described in the Memoirs of the Bath Agricultural Society.

' The *smooth-stalk'd grass* was found nearly in proportion to the last mentioned — Its verdure is beautiful, and it is a very hardy grass.

' The *Suffolk annual poa* was in very great proportion — and is in the highest esteem with the farmers, in this, and almost every other county in England,

' Some plants of the *crested dog's-tail grass* were found — It is common on downy and dry pasture, but generally considered inferior to many other grasses.

' The *meadow fox-tail grass* which was also found here — is a valuable early grass, and well adapted to improve wet ground.

' Four plants of the *bird's-foot trefoil* were found — An excellent leguminous plant for cattle, and worthy of cultivation as such.

' A great quantity of *yarrow* was likewise met with here — It is eaten indeed by sheep and other cattle, but in no esteem by our farmers.

' The *turfy hair grass* was also met with — It is a grass which cows and swine will eat; but horses are not fond of it.

' Several plants of the *meadow soft grass* were likewise found here — A grass of no esteem; but, its seed, being so easily collected, is often sent to market as hay-seed, it will therefore be very necessary to be acquainted with the seed, to avoid its mixture with others so much more profitable.

' Of the *hard fescue grass* we perceived some plants; but more of the *fine bent grass*.

' The *deficient dandelion* (vid. Curtis, Fl. Lond. N° 66.) was found growing here, as well as on most of the commons in England.

' The *ray-grass*, or what is corruptly called *rie-grass*, or *crap*, or by Ray, the *red darnel grass*, was found growing here — It is much in esteem, and very well known by the farmer. It grows in the

the poorest soil, endures the drought of summer, and in the spring is the earliest grass of any, and cannot at that time be over-stocked; for, its being kept down, makes it sweeter than any other grass.

'The *couchy grass* was met with only in a small quantity.'  
P. 141.

These are the observations and conclusions which the author has drawn from his experiment. But it is not by such a trial, that the utility or advantage of such a variety of grasses can be sufficiently ascertained for the purposes of agriculture.

*The Peeper; a Collection of Essays, Moral, Biographical, and Literary.* 12mo. 4s. Boards. Allen and West. 1796.

'THE taste of the present age appears to be more for light essays upon moral subjects, than for elaborate disquisitions. Authors have a right, undoubtedly, to avail themselves of this taste as much as they can; and though, perhaps, upon the whole, it is not exactly such as could be wished, yet it is not without its advantages. Many persons may be brought to read a short essay, who would not meddle with a volume, and if there should be any thing in it peculiarly striking, it may make an impressive conviction upon the mind, and lead it into a train of closer consideration.

'This taste has, also, been the means of enriching the store of literature with works of immortality, and that, more particularly in our own language. The names of Addison and Johnson, are more luminous from their periodical publications, than they, probably, would have been from works of greater magnitude and labour. And even inferior authors who have pursued this mode have not been without their portion of praise, from their having contributed in some degree, to moral improvement.

'The present collection, the very humblest of its kind, is submitted to the candour of a discerning public, with no other pretension than an earnest desire to serve the interests of virtue.'  
P. v.

Thus modestly, and we will add, justly, does the author rate his claims to public favour. He proceeds, however, in terms not quite so consistent with this apparent humility—

'Should criticism be exercised *hereon* its approbation will be regarded with respect, and its *censure* with *indifference*.' P. vi.

After such a declaration, the most wholesome admonition must be fruitless, though, at the same time, we are told a little *praise* would be most *graciously received*. We shall observe a middle course, however, and do that which critical justice

demands of us,—neither praise nor blame.—As a specimen of the author's manner, we extract the following remarks from the essay 'On Sepulchral Vanity,'—observing, however, *en passant*, that he merits the severest animadversion, if the charge which he has here brought against a very respectable body of men, the Protestant Dissenters, be unfounded; whereas, on the other hand, his strictures, if true, are entitled to their most serious consideration.

' In antient times the inscriptions on the sepulchral monuments were short, plain, and expressive of the quality and character of those to whose memory they were erected.

' And till the reformation, epitaphs among christians were generally, if not entirely, of a humiliating cast. The lowly stone supplicated the intercession of the passing traveller in behalf of the soul of the miserable sinner over whose ashes it was placed. Sometimes it breathed the pious wish of "requiescat in pace," but oftener did it express the "orate pro nobis." In modern times, on the contrary, our churches and cemeteries are crowded with declarations pompously trumpeting the virtues of those who rest beneath. They were all saints who had attained the state of perfection on earth, and their departure was nothing less than a transition to heaven. This kind of posthumous flattery (if I may venture the expression) is peculiarly common among our protestant dissenters. He who shall wish to invalidate the assertion, need but pay a visit to Bunhill-Fields burying-ground, to be satisfied of its truth. The intruding ministers of the last century, and who were ejected at the restoration to give way to those whose right they had usurped, are all represented as so many martyrs whose sufferings were equal, if not superior to those of the primitive ages.

' Dr. Isaac Watts, in an epitaph on a dissenting minister, called Matthew Clarke, of whom, I believe, little other memorial remains than in this kindness of his friend, bursts into all the hyperbole of the most extravagant panegyric. After a long enumeration of qualifications and virtues which this man possessed, the doctor says,

' But what rich stores of grace lay hid behind  
The veil of modesty, no human mind  
Can search, no friend declare, nor fame reveal,  
Nor has this mournful marble power to tell.  
Yet there's a hast'ning hour, it comes, it comes,  
To rouse the sleeping dead, to burst the tombs  
And set the saint in view. All eyes behold :  
Whilst the vast records of the skies enroll'd,  
Rehearse his works, and spread his worth abroad ;  
The judge approves, and heaven and earth applaud.  
Go, traveller ; and wheresoe'er  
Thy wand'ring feet shall rest

In distant lands, thy ear shall hear  
His name pronounc'd and blest.

' Among other accomplishments, too many, indeed, for one man's share, this wonderful Mr. Clarke had a rich store, which no body could find out, which was inscrutable even to the penetration and partiality of friendship, but which the last day shall discover with a brilliancy that almost amounts to deification. The amiable doctor adds further of his friend, who no doubt was an honest, sensible and pious man in his way, that the "vast records of the skies" are but just sufficient to display the excellence of his works. So much for Mr. Clarke's apotheosis. We shall from henceforth learn to pay more respect to the canonizing decrees of the church of Rome. After all this encomium the reader is modestly bid to travel over all the globe, in every part of which he will hear the name and praise of Mr. Matthew Clarke.

' As a contrast to this I find relief in considering the inscription on the tombstone of bishop Compton, in Fulham church-yard, Middlesex:

' H. LONDON: EI MH EN TΩ ΣΤΑΤΡΩ. MDCCXIII.

"God forbid that I should glory save in the cross."

' Now I suppose that this bishop was as well known, as learned, as accomplished, and as pious a man in his day as his cotemporary Mr. Matthew Clarke.' P. 55.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### POLITICAL.

*The Political Salvation of Great Britain, by Means entirely new; rendered necessary by the Urgency of Circumstances; concluding with a Remedy for the depreciated State of the Funds, highly interesting to Stockholders. By a Gentleman independent of Party.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wright. 1797.

**T**HIS pamphlet affords an instance that mere independence of party does not necessarily imply more wisdom than is to be found in parties; and that a man, uninfluenced by any ties of connection, or improper bias from dependence or ambition, may yet select, as the objects of his censure or of his approbation, those opinions of party-men which respectively deserve a very different treatment. Independent of *ministers*, he considers them as having completely failed in the conduct of the war; the errors he more particularly insists upon, are — their not having sent out, at an early period, a force sufficient to have secured the whole French possessions in the West Indies, — and a total want of energy in every undertaking afterwards entered upon. Thus far *directly* for his independence on ministers.

Equally independent of the *opposition*, he asserts that they have blamed administration without mercy and justice, for their conduct respecting the present coercion of Ireland, and the acts which restrain the numerous meetings of the Corresponding Society. He dreads the establishment of religious toleration in Ireland, because, in his opinion, a bloody and desperate struggle would be made for it also in England; and he considers the Corresponding Society as deserving restraint, from its endeavouring to promote universal suffrage, and from the lurking designs of its members, who call themselves *citizens*, &c.

The 'means' of 'political salvation,' which he proposes, are undoubtedly in many respects 'new;' and that our readers may be able to judge whether they be preferable to those proposed of old, we shall state, that, in his zeal to suppress sedition, he offers the following *infallible* remedy:—parliament is to define 'sedition to be a wilful and intentional attempt, either by word or deed, either directly or indirectly, to alienate or disaffect the mind of one or more persons from the established constitution of the kingdom.' This he thinks a definition which would ascertain the point clearly, though it must be obvious to readers of all descriptions that he has left the words *established constitution* without explanation, and that the whole efficacy of this new law must depend on the accuracy of our ideas upon that point. If by *constitution* he simply means a form of king, lords, and commons, his law would be easily understood; but it would be useless, as that form is already guaranteed and protected by many statutes. If he means the whole body of the laws, to which every man is bound to submit, he ought to know that that submission does not forbid every attempt by meeting, petition, remonstrance, &c. to obtain a repeal of a law discovered to be obnoxious to the liberty or interests of the nation at large, or only a part of it. Let us try the effect of his new law upon himself. He would restrain the Corresponding Society because they propose universal suffrage and annual parliaments. This plan of reform, be it absurd or not, is still a plan which it is lawful to propose, and to enforce by argument, if it be capable of argument. Now if one plan be lawful, why not another? Accordingly he gives us *his* plan of a *true representation* of the house of commons, not to be effected by the people without, nor the members within, nor by the Whig Club, nor the Friends of the People, but by — THE HOUSE OF LORDS! These peers, restricted as they are by positive laws from interfering in a single election, are to new-model the whole state of the representation of the people of Great Britain. And these are the *new means* proposed for the salvation of the country!

The author's thoughts on the impolicy of a general inclosure bill, and on the restoration of public credit, are more deserving of attention; but for these we must refer to the pamphlet, which, upon the whole, leaves us no very favourable impression of the author's acquaintance with constitutional liberty, and some degree of surprise.

pride that a writer, independent of ministry or opposition, should have imbibed some of the most objectionable principles of both.

*Letter from Thomas Paine to George Washington, President of the United States of America, 8vo. 1s. 6d. Symonds. 1797.*

It is difficult to know to what party this pamphlet will give most displeasure. The admirers of Mr. Washington will be sorry to find all that ingenious scurrility which used to be employed towards *kings*, discharged on the head of one of the most illustrious friends American liberty can boast; and the admirers of Mr. Paine will not be less sorry to see him add to the discredit he reaped from his *Age of Reason*, the character of a conceited, selfish, and inconsistent man. There is indeed a third party who will derive some satisfaction from this effusion of spleen and quibble. Those who have in vain endeavoured to *write down* the author of the Rights of Man, will be glad that he has taken the task out of their hands, and is likely to perform it much more satisfactorily.

What is *personal* in this letter, though pretendedly the least, is in fact the principal view of the author in writing it. Mr. Paine complains that Mr. Washington did not obtain his liberty when imprisoned by Robespierre. This is the sum and substance of the accusation: and he endeavours to explain away the only apology that can be made for the American government, namely, that clause in their constitution, enacting, that 'any citizen of the United States who shall accept a title, place, or office, from any foreign king, prince, or state, shall forfeit and lose his right of citizenship of the United States.' This Mr. Paine would obviate, by pleading that his seat, as a member of the convention, appointed to frame a new constitution, does not incur the penalty of this law. One argument, and one only, is sufficient to show that a man who decides in his own case is not always the most impartial judge. Had this convention been appointed for no other purpose than the framing of a constitution, and had its powers and delegation stopped there, it might have been composed of men from all nations, without the forfeiture of their respective citizenships. But that convention became the sovereign power, and exercised the sovereign authority for a very considerable time, and Mr. Paine, as a member of it, exercised the monstrous and unjust privilege of judge and jury in the case of Louis XVI.

In whatever way, however, this question may be determined, it is the only ground of accusation he has against Mr. Washington. But, to strengthen it, he chooses to go back to the American war, and depreciate the character of Mr. Washington as an officer: and, still more to increase the load of obloquy, he gives the lie direct to all he had formerly published respecting the president, and strips him alike of military talents and political virtues. This inconsistency is proved by various extracts from his writings, published in the following pamphlet.



*A Letter to the infamous Tom Paine, in Answer to his Letter to General Washington. By Peter Porcupine, Author of the Bone to gnaw for Democrats, &c. 8vo. 1s. Ogilvy and Son. 1797.*

The extracts to which we more particularly allude are these —

*'Letter to Gen. Washington.*

*Common Sense.*

When we speak of military character, something more is to be understood than constancy; and something more ought to be understood than the Fabian system of doing nothing. The nothing part can be done by any body. Old Mrs. Thompson, the house-keeper of head-quarters (who threatened to make the sun and wind shine through Rivington of New York) could have done it as well as Mr. Washington. Deborah would have been as good as Barak. The successful skirmishes at the close of one campaign (matters that would scarcely be noticed in a better state of things) make the brilliant exploits of general Washington's seven campaigns. No wonder we see so much pusillanimity in the president, when we see so little enterprize in the general.

Voltaire has remarked, that king William never appeared to full advantage but in difficulties and in action. The same remark may be made on general Washington, for the character fits him. There is a natural firmness in some minds which cannot be unlocked by trifles; but which, when unlocked, discovers a cabinet of fortitude:— and I reckon it among those kind of public blessings, which we do not immediately see, that God hath blest him with uninterrupted health, and given him a mind that can even flourish upon care,

Elevated to the chair of the presidency, you assumed the merit of every thing to yourself; and the natural ingratitude of your constitution began to appear. You commenced your presidential career by encouraging and swallowing the grossest adulation; and you travelled America, from one end to the other, to put yourself in the way of receiving it. You have as many addresses in your chest as James II. Monopolies of every

*Rights of Man, Part 2.*

I presume, that no man in his sober senses, will compare the character of any of the kings of Europe with that of general Washington.

As soon as nine states had concurred (and the rest followed in the order their conventions were elected) the old fabric of the federal government was taken down and the new one erected, of which general Washington is president. — In this place I cannot help remarking, that the

*' Letter to Gen. Washington.*

kind marked your administration almost in the moment of its commencement. The lands obtained by the revolution were lavished upon partizans; the interest of the disbanded soldier was sold to the speculator; injustice was acted under the pretence of faith; and the chief of the army became the patron of the fraud.

*' Rights of Man, Part 2.*

character and services of this gentleman are sufficient to put all those men called kings to shame. While they are receiving, from the sweat and labours of mankind a prodigality of pay, to which neither their abilities nor their services can entitle them, he is rendering every service in his power, and refusing every pecuniary reward. He accepted no pay as commander in chief; he accepts none as president of the United States.

*Dedication to the First Part of the Rights of Man.*

SIR,

And as to you, sir, treacherous in private friendship, and a hypocrite in public life, the world will be puzzled to decide, whether you are an apostate or an impostor? whether you have abandoned good principles, or whether you ever had any?

I present you a small treatise in defence of those principles of freedom which your exemplary virtue has so eminently contributed to establish. That the Rights of Man may become as universal as your benevolence can wish, and that you may enjoy the happiness of seeing the new world regenerate the old, is the prayer of

Sir,

Your most obliged and obedient humble servt.

THOMAS PAINE. P. 20.

These extracts form the only valuable part of this pamphlet. The rest is a tissue of rant and scurrilous abuse, which would disgrace any other man in the world, except Peter Porcupine, whose works we have often had occasion to notice as the lowest effusions of party acrimony and malice.

*An Answer to Mr. Paine's Letter to Gen. Washington: or Mad Tom convicted of the blackest Ingratitude. Including some Pages of gratuitous Counsel to the Author of the 'Cause and Consequences, &c.'* By P. Kennedy, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1797.

Although the respect we entertain for the character and public services of the venerable Washington has not been lessened by Mr. Paine's attack, yet we wished to see the latter refuted in a

manner honourable to the cause, — the cause of vindicating a name which will be illustrious in the eyes of posterity, and ought to be handed down free from blemish. The present author, however, does not answer our expectations. He gives us nothing but hard words and foul names. We profess no very violent regard for Mr. Paine, and have often exposed the emptiness of his declamation, and the fallacy of his attempts at argument: but merely to call names, is to subject an author to the contempt he aims at his antagonist. Mr. Kennedy is a *dealer* in such epithets — ‘the enthusiastic, the depraved, the ungrateful Tom Paine’ — ‘vomits up his gall with drunken eruption,’ &c. but we must not offend the delicacy of our readers by more quotations of this kind. It is surprising that while Mr. Kennedy pays so just a tribute to the bishop of Landaff, he should not be struck with that urbanity of manner which distinguishes his Apology from most controversial writings: and we must add, that he who refuses to carry on a controversy in the same gentle and liberal style, is a Christian in *name* only.

In his pages of *Gratuitous Counsel* to the author of *Causes and Consequences*, &c. he is not sparing of the same language he applies to Mr. Paine, and vehemently exhorts all men to support the present administration. Subjoined we have a very high-flown panegyric on general Washington — *that* general Washington who was once a *rebel*, and during whose career of glory, we had writers who employed the same means to wean the people from timely reform, and the expulsion of weak and wicked ministers, as Mr. Kennedy employs in this pamphlet. — So much for the consistency of party spirit!

*A Letter to the Hon. Thomas Erskine, containing some strictures on his View of the Causes and Consequences of the present War with France. By John Gifford, Esq. Author of a Letter to the Earl of Lauderdale, &c. &c. 8vo. 3s. Longman. 1797.*

‘After the ample discussion which the origin of the war had undergone — after the unconfuted arguments, and the strong and unanswerable proofs which had been adduced by a learned and worthy friend of mine, as well as by myself, in support of its justice and necessity, I conceived the question of aggression to be finally decided.’ P. 1.

This worthy friend, John Bowles, esq. and our author, are a very pretty pair, — *par nobile fratrum*, equally capable of deciding great political questions. Our author holds his antagonist in the utmost contempt.

‘Your whole narrative’ (says he) ‘of the proceedings, previous to the declaration of war by France, exhibits a gross ignorance of facts, a shameful perversion of circumstances, and “a misshapen heap” of false conclusions, which mark the advocate of party, but disgrace the friend of truth.’ P. 51.

‘the observations which are scattered over your work, like the thistles on your native hills, that exhibit a spectacle of disgusting barrenness, deforming the soil they are unable to fertilize.’ P. 51.

‘The contempt which the extreme puerility of your arguments extorts is lost in surprize at the weakness of their basis — But the foundation being destroyed, the superstructure falls of course, exhibiting in its flimsy ruins, an object for the derision of sense, the scorn of judgement, the deploration of vanity, and the lamentations of egotism.’ P. 55.

Mr. Erskine will derive some small consolation under these censures, that *John Locke*, printed in italics, is termed ‘that arch propagator of wild conceits, that wholesale fabricator of fanciful systems of polity.’ After such specimens of the author’s style, our readers will, we are persuaded, very gladly be excused from any farther extracts out of this monstrous heap of egotism, self-conceit, and misrepresentation. We will not, however, apply to this work what our author does to that of his adversary, that it is ‘one of the most dull, despicable, and miserable performances that ever we had been doomed to read;’ we will do him the justice to say, that we have even read worse, — worse not only in style and composition, but even in spirit and intention.

We were struck with one note upon the number of editions which his adversary’s book had gone through. In the beginning of his pamphlet he allows that democratic works have the greatest circulation: and this is attributed to the spirit of party, and their appeal to the passions, not the reason of men; at the end of the book our author tells us that Mr. Erskine’s editions contained only one fourth of the usual number of copies. Whence this information was derived, we are not informed: but it is right that the public should know that very little dependence can be placed upon a title-page. A bishop, some time deceased, made seven editions from two hundred and fifty copies of one sermon; and an edition of a pamphlet consists often of a thousand copies, and sometimes of fifteen hundred. We do not know the number of copies in an edition of either Mr. Burke’s or Mr. Erskine’s pamphlets: but we presume that they were both above those little arts, which should be confined only to venal bookfellers; and if they would forsake such arts, their trade would become more honourable.

*A Letter to John Gifford, Esq. containing Strictures on the Tendency of his Writings in general, and of his Letter to the Hon. Thomas Erskine in particular.* 8vo. 1s. Crosby. 1797.

‘If in the course of these Strictures I have not bowed to your judgment, with that implicit reverence, which the idea you have formed of your own merit inclined you to expect, it has been because from reasons of a personal nature, rather than the more no-

ble

ble motives of public patriotism, you have displayed in your writings, such a fixed determination to support the present destructive measures; because you have treated your superiors in knowledge, and your equals in virtue, with a rudeness which no jacobinical leveller could have exceeded; and stamped your decisions with an air of haughtiness, intended to silence enquiry, and intimidate discussion; and lastly, though not least in importance, because you have basely perverted facts, for the dishonourable purposes of calumny and misrepresentation.' p. 30.

Mr. Gifford certainly deserves no quarter: but surely our author could employ his time much better than with so insignificant a composition.

*The Inconsistencies of Mr. Pitt, on the Subject of the War, and the present State of our Commerce, considered, and fairly stated. Addressed, by Permission, to the Right Hon. Charles James Fox. By Thomas Plummer, Jun. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1797.*

Mr. Plummer is of opinion, that, in reviewing the conduct of any man, there cannot be a more fair criterion to establish, as the test of his merits or demerits, than the words which have proceeded from his own mouth, or those sentiments which he has always avowed as his motives of action, and upon which he has always rested his justification. Fair, however, as this criterion may be, the result of our author's examination proves that he could not have chosen one more unfavourable to Mr. Pitt's character, as a consistent and wise minister. From his speeches Mr. Plummer deduces very plainly, that, in the course of two years' war, the minister no less than three times adopted different sentiments, and changed the object of the war. He set off with professing to protect our allies, and obtain redress for injuries said to be received from France. When Holland and the Netherlands had been protected from the attacks of the French, his pretext was, that the existence of a revolutionary government in France was incompatible with the safety of this country. Not able, however, to destroy that government, he informed us that we were to continue the war, till any government was organised which could maintain the relations of peace and amity, without regarding what might be the form of such government. These inconsistencies are proved by various extracts from Mr. Pitt's speeches, from 1792 to 1795; and the proof is corroborated by an appeal to other documents respecting the conduct of the war. The author appears to examine into facts with candour, and writes with temperance. In his considerations on the present state of commerce, he differs widely from those who have expatiated on its prosperity, and considers the salvation of commerce and the constitution as dependent on an entire change of men and measures. The characteristic of this pamphlet is good sense rather than

than vigour; and it is, if we mistake not, the second essay of a young writer, who has acquired some skill in arrangement and investigation, and will not disgrace the cause he has undertaken to support.

*An Essay on the English National Credit: or, an Attempt to remove the Apprehensions of those who have Money in the English Funds.*  
By C. L. A. Patje, President of the Board of Commerce and Finance at Hanover. 8vo. 1s. Marlb. 1797.

The translator of this work is well known in the learned world for his translation of Michaelis \*, and Letters to Travis †. The love of his country induced him to suspend his literary labours for a moment, in hopes of giving that tranquillity to the creditors of the state at home, which those abroad, he conceives, have derived, and may derive, from the work before us. The stopping of the bank naturally created an alarm over the electorate of Hanover; and inevitable ruin seemed to be the consequence of it to many families. At such a distance from the spot, they could have no idea that an event which a few years ago would have been deprecated as the most terrible that ever befell the nation, should create here only a temporary alarm, and that the minister's order to continue the suspension of payment would be acceded to by the house of commons and the people with the utmost indifference. Yet such is the present state of the country: and much as we value the remarks in this work, and applaud Mr. Marlb for cloathing it in an English dress, we cannot see sufficient ground for security in any country where the dictum of the executive government can controul the transactions of a commercial company. The bank, we conceive, would have acted more honourably by paying its last guinea, or taking out, like any other company of merchants, its commission of bankruptcy, than holding its credit at the breath of a minister.

The topics of consolation held forth to the foreign creditor are these—‘that no country in Europe pays, in proportion to its ability, less than England,—that the taxes may be augmented to defray the increased interest of the national debt,—that its commerce must increase,—that no other nation can produce goods so cheap,—that the apparent expense of the war is not to be considered as a total loss to the country, as the greater part has been expended within it,—that the fall in the price of stocks is not owing to want of confidence in government security, but to a variety of other causes,—that the legislative body is interested in the support of the funds,—and that the excellence of the constitution, the firmness of the national character, and the industry of the people, are securities for credit, which can never be shaken.

These arguments, used by a foreigner, may be beneficial to many of our own countrymen, who from the present aspect of things are

\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. IX. p. 421.

† See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XVI. p. 121, and 444.

inclined to despondency. To such men we should recommend the perfect separation, in their minds, of the stock-jobbing system and the national credit. Like other commodities, money has its market price, which will be daily fluctuating: but the apprehensions of ruin from such changes will be entirely dispelled by a careful perusal of this pamphlet.

*The Questions stated, Peace or War? and Who are the Men fittest to make Peace and to keep it? submitted to the Consideration of the People of Great Britain and Ireland.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1797.

In order to determine the question, whether it is best to make peace or continue the war, this author takes a view, first, of the advantages gained by the war, and secondly, the evils incurred by it. Under the former head he considers the objects and motives for which the war was begun and has been continued, and how far we have succeeded in attaining them. According to his statement, those objects were—the navigation of the Scheldt,—the defence of the Dutch,—the recovery of the Netherlands from the French,—the destruction of the new republic,—and the restoration of the French monarchy. To these he adds, upon supposition, the increase of the power of the ministry,—the diversion of the people from an attention to parliamentary reform,—and compensation for our services in restoring monarchy, religion, and good order to France. How far we have succeeded in these objects, is so obvious as to require no great length of illustration; and the evils incurred by the war are equally obvious, though not acknowledged so generally. In considering the Netherlands as a cause for continuing the war, he points out the little probability of success: and even that little is diminished, since the writing of this pamphlet, by the peace concluded between the emperor and the French. He next proceeds to examine the character of the present ministry as to abilities and integrity; and the result, our readers may suppose, is against them. The persons he thinks most likely to conclude a peace with the French, are those who have uniformly opposed the principle of the war, and whose sincerity in proposing terms the French could have no reason to suspect. The whole pamphlet is written dispassionately, and with a close adherence to facts, and such simple arguments as tend to produce a ready conviction. The style, however, is quaintly familiar, and sometimes borders on coarseness and vulgarity. We particularly allude to a passage respecting bank notes in the Preface.

*A Third Letter to a British Merchant: containing Reflections on the Foreign and Domestic Politics of this Country, together with Strictures on the Conduct of Opposition.* By John Bowles, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Longman. 1797.

Excessive abuse of the opposition,—inordinate panegyric of the administration,—violent declamation against the French republic. Since

Since the work was printed, the opposition has seceded: and as the orders of the minister are carried by almost empty benches, the author must be enraptured at the present state of the country.

## AGRICULTURAL.

*An Account of the Culture of Potatoes in Ireland.* 8vo. 1s. Shepperson and Reynolds. 1796.

The directions contained in this tract are professedly to be understood as relating to the culture of potatoes, not in the kitchen garden or other small spots, but as a great article of field-tillage, productive to the farmer, and of an abundant supply of food, such as it is, for the poorer classes of the people, through every season of the year. Accordingly, to the production of an excellent crop, the four following conditions are requisite: — *good seed*, — *rich manure*, — *suitable land*, — and *proper cultivation*.

Under the first head, it is observed that the best sets are those which are cut from the largest potatoes, taking care to have as much of the substance with the eye, or bud, as will suffice to throw out shoots for the support of the plant. Hence, the cuttings should be taken from large potatoes. The parts remaining after the eyes are cut out may be boiled to advantage for poultry or hogs, or eaten raw by horses and cattle. They must not, however, be laid up in heaps, to hazard their heating. Shoots thrown out in spring, by potatoes kept in houses or pits, may be safely planted for cuttings. Five barrels of twenty-one stones, fourteen pounds to the stone, will be necessary for an English acre of ground cultivated by the spade: but less than half that quantity will be enough in drills.

As to *manure*, good dung will be found the best. Those, however, who would have dry, mealy potatoes, must not apply too much; but where the waxy sort is preferred, the farmer may use as much dung as he wishes. The quantity generally required to produce the mealy kind, is a hundred one-horse cart-loads to an English acre.

Burn-baiting is a good preparative of land, as is lime used alone, or with earth, — sea weeds, if immediately covered with the plough, — and the various sorts of marl pulverised.

The most *suitable land* is good rich loam with a mixture of sand, unless waxy potatoes be preferred; and in that case the richest land will be most desirable. All soils tolerably dry, by the aid of good dung or other proper manure, will produce good crops.

For the *proper cultivation*, various methods are mentioned. The first and simplest, called the lazy-bed method, is spoken of as eligible only on meadows and very rich pastures. In February or March, the ley is marked out in straight beds, with spaces between for trenches. If the soil be shallow, the breadth of the beds should



be three feet and a half; but if the mould be deep, of five feet. The width of the trenches should be rather more than a third of the bed. The beds and spaces being laid out by line, and marked with a spade, the dung or manure should be evenly spread on the strips destined for the beds; and having deposited the sets on the manure, from nine inches to a foot every way asunder, the sods are to be pared off the spaces marked for trenches, chopped by the spade, and thrown over the potatoe cuttings; after which, a shallow spit of mould is cast from the trenches on the beds, over the chopped sods for the first covering of the sets. Half of each bed is still to be covered from the nearest half of the trench. When the plants are two inches high, another shallow spit is to be thrown from the trenches over them; and when they appear above this second surface, they are once more to be earthed with spade and shovel. The land must be kept free from weeds, and should be cultivated with potatoes a second year, making the trenches where the centre of the beds were in the first. — It is an improvement in the lazy-bed culture, to lay out the beds in winter, and dig the trenches as deep as the mould, turning down the sods and chopping them with the spade.

The second and better method is, after the ley is closely set down, to plough the surface, in winter, into beds seven feet from the centre of one furrow to the centre of the next; in such a manner as that the sods may lie flat, with the green sides downward; being mindful to leave so much room in beginning to turn the centre sods of each bed, as to leave a sufficient space untouched by the plough to receive these sods turned flat upon it. Thus, the succeeding sods will lie respectively in their proper places. After ploughing, close the seams with the harrow. Carry on short dung, or other manure, dividing the load for the convenience of spreading. Across the bed, at the distance of a foot, let the sets be dropped, as deep as the spade will penetrate by the exertion of the right foot upon it. The cleft, widened by pressing the spade forward, will, when it is withdrawn, cover each cutting. Ten men or women are necessary to plant an English acre. A harrow should close the spade cuts, immediately after they have received the sets. The beds are to be covered with mould from the furrows, which should previously have a plough run through them. Pare the sides of the furrows into handsome trenches. The ground dug answers better than ploughed.

The third method is to plant potatoes on stubbles ploughed into beds, and manured as before, twice covering the sets with mould.

The last method is that of drills, which is recommended as best for England. Stubble land is fittest for this purpose. It should be ploughed early, and so as to make the ground as level as possible. The land is to lie thus during winter. The first dry weather, it must be harrowed and cross-ploughed; still taking care not to har-

row or plough it while wet. All the fods must be laid one way. If the ground be flat, and will conveniently admit, the drills, for the benefit of the sun, should run nearly north and south. These drills may be made by a plough going once and returning in the furrow; in which case the mould-board will lay the earth, first on one side, and then on the other. They are to be made as deep as the soil will allow, and perfectly straight, about four feet asunder for the convenience of earthing. The sets should be dropped into the drill, as soon as completed by the second passage of the plough, within six inches of each other, and be immediately covered with dung or rich compost. If dung be wanted, the fallow well limed will be productive. Some cover the drills by running the plough on either side, others with a bushed harrow; but the best method is by means of a board four feet long, and about four inches wide, with a handle like a rake. The plants should be earthed three or four times, and until they are in blossom.

Potatoes, set in March or April, may be taken up in October. Those of May, in November; but the season must be consulted. The first smart frost after Michaelmas that changes their leaves, is a certain indication of the time for storing them. If potatoes be in beds, they should be dug with spades, or, to save time, ploughed; — in drills, always ploughed. Dry weather should be chosen for getting them up; and they should be stored dry, either in gravel pits, or within doors, and protected by straw from frost. Potatoes, it is observed, can never be good, dressed as in England, paring them like turnips before they are put into the pot. The way in Ireland is to wash them clean in cold water, and boil them slowly, dressing those together that are nearly of a size. A little cold water is frequently thrown in, when it is apprehended the pot might boil too suddenly. Potatoes soft and watery are certainly unwholesome.

This root will degenerate, unless renovated at times from seed.

*Remarks on various Agricultural Reports transmitted to the Honourable Board of Agriculture, in the Year 1794. By William Fox, Attorney at Law. 4to. 3s. Nicol. 1796.*

It is no slight sanction, that the board to which these remarks were imparted, has honoured them with its approbation. Mr. Fox is certainly a judicious observer; and the hints suggested by him are such as cannot but interest those to whom improvements in agriculture are of any importance. The topics of observation are exceedingly various, and the remarks upon them pertinent and acute.

#### P O E T I C A L .

*One Thousand Seven Hundred and Ninety-six; a Satire: in four Dialogues. Dialogue the First and Second. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Walker. 1797.*

These satirical effusions of a prolific Muse are not destitute either  
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of the humorous pleasantry, or of the sarcastic severity, which the author has displayed on many former occasions. The dialogues are in the names of Peter and Tom; and the latter is supposed to be a young academic, who is eager to attract public notice by exercising his literary talents in the ample field of satire. Peter ironically checks his rash purpose, and advises moderation and forbearance. Tom persists in his resolution, and declares that he will use the knife and the caustic,—that he will expose the *two dictators* in their true colours, and brand other unprincipled characters with just censure. When he has threatened that the duke of Portland shall feel his scourge, Peter, with a contemptuous sneer, thus vindicates the noble secretary —

‘Why so, poor man?’

His grace is much the best of all the clan.  
Though dup’d to join with knaves his luckless doom,  
‘Mid rooks, a pigeon with-unfuffled plume:  
His colleagues, when compar’d to him! — a day  
Of wolf-like Winter, and the lamb-like May;  
The lane’s coarse pebble, and Golconda’s stone;  
The Medicean Venus, and a Joan.’ P. 14.

A well-known statesman is characterised in the following terms. Peter having observed, that ‘some merit must to Pitt belong,’ Tom replies —

‘I grant him perseverance — grant him tongue.  
With words I own the fellow well supplied,  
Bombast, and phrases ready cut and dried;  
A formal, scowling, wisdom-aping face;  
An awkward gesture, an affected grace:  
Cavil and flimsy logic, to surprise,  
And raise the whites of country members eyes.  
When dead, what leaves this Pitt to light mankind?  
Not the dim lustre of a snail, behind!  
Grant from his dust the world one ray may pick;  
What is’t? — the glimmer of a rotten stick!’ P. 40.

The concluding lines of the pamphlet contain remarks which are founded in truth. Tom having expressed his surprise that his friend should ‘laugh at hopes of reformation,’ Peter says —

‘Pitt finds a tame old hack in our good nation;  
Safe, through the dirt, and ev’ry dangerous road,  
The beast consents to bear his galling load;  
And, spite of all that we can sing or say,  
Fools will be fools, and ministers — betray.’ P. 48.

These dialogues, notwithstanding occasional frivolities, extravagancies, and defects, may serve to entertain the readers of both parties;

ties; but the amusement which the ministerial advocates may derive from them, will not extinguish the resentment which some passages may excite.

*Il Paradiso Perduto di Giovanni Milton, tradotto in Verso Italiano da Felice Mariottini.* 8vo. 12s. Boards. Polidori. 1796.

We have already taken notice of the first volume of this work \*, published in 1794. The author has now completed his translation; but he has retrenched the notes and criticism, with which, according to his original design, he meant to have accompanied it. The translation is now published in one volume, containing only the Italian version. The greater expense of his proposed edition in five volumes, by the first of which we are sorry to understand he lost considerably, is in part the reason which has induced him to change his plan. We do not pretend to be sufficiently conversant in the delicacies of the Italian language to criticise its poetry: but it appears to us that Mr. Mariottini has deserved well of both nations by giving a spirited and faithful version of our great poet; and we congratulate him on the completion of so arduous an undertaking.

*Ode on the Departing Year.* By S. T. Coleridge. 4to. 1s. Parsons. 1796.

Mr. Coleridge, to whose former productions we have given impartial commendation, now attempts the flight of the Theban eagle, the great Pindar; but we are sorry to say that he too frequently mistakes bombast and obscurity, for sublimity. The poem certainly possesses some nervous lines; but in general we dare not applaud. We are displeased at finding such a number of affected phrases as a *bowed mind*—*skirts* of the departing year, which is rather a vulgar figure, notwithstanding the '*blanket*' of Shakspeare may be brought forward to keep him in countenance.

*Foeman*—*lidless*—*recenter*—*bedim*—*strangeyed destruction*—*marge*—*warfield*—*stoft-winds*—*uncosfin'd*—*cum multis aliis*, are affectations. The fault of our lyric poets is to support trifling ideas with a pomposity of thought, and shunning that simplicity which should for ever accompany the lyric Muse. Pegasus is a fiery steed; and when spurred, as he seems to have been on the present occasion, he is apt to fling his rider in the dirt:—*sat verbum*. The above strictures are by no means meant to discourage, but to reform. Poetical Enthusiasm should take Reason for her companion. We shall present our readers with an extract from the Ode, to prove that our animadversions are not dictated by the spirit of severity—

‘ Spirit, who sweepst the wild harp of Time,  
It is most hard with an untroubled ear  
Thy dark inwoven harmonies to hear!  
Yet, mine eye fixt on heaven’s unchanged clime,

\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XVI. p. 488.

Long had I listen'd, free from mortal fear,  
 With inward stillness and a bowed mind :  
 When lo ! far onwards waving on the wind  
 I saw the skirts of the departing year !  
     Starting from my silent sadness  
     Then with no unholy madness,  
 Ere yet the entered cloud forbade my fight,  
 I rais'd th' impetuous song, and solemnized his flight.  
     Hither from the recent tomb ;  
     From the prison's direr gloom ;  
     From poverty's heart-wasting languish ;  
     From distemper's midnight anguish :  
 Or where his two bright torches blending  
 Love illumines manhood's maze ;  
 Or where o'er cradled infants bending  
 Hope has fix'd her wishful gaze :  
 Hither, in perplexed dance,  
 Ye woes, and young-eyed joys, advance !  
 By Time's wild harp, and by the hand  
 Whose indefatigable sweep  
 Forbids its fateful strings to sleep,  
 I bid you haste, a mixt tumultuous band !  
     From every private bower,  
     And each domestic hearth,  
     Haste for one solemn hour ;  
 And with a loud and yet a louder voice  
 O'er the fore travail of the common earth  
     Weep and rejoice !  
 Seiz'd in fore travail and portentous birth  
 (Her eye-balls flashing a pernicious glare)  
 Sick nature struggles ! Hark — her pangs increase  
 Her groans are horrible ! But ô ! most fair  
 The promis'd twins, she bears — Equality and Peace.' p. 5.

*The War of the Giants, by an Admirer of Thomas Sternhold and John Hopkins. To which is added, a Dialogue between John Bull and one of his Friends. With Notes. 4to. 2s. Johnson. 1797.*

Fit for the admirers of Thomas Sternhold and John Hopkins. The giants are the confederate kings in a late contest ; and Johnny Bull is reprimanded by his friend for entering into the crusade.

*An Elegy, occasioned on the Death of the Hon. and Rev. William Bromley Cadogan, A. M. &c. &c. Who died, January 18, 1797. By Thomas T. Biddulph, A. M. 4to. 6d. Dilly. 1797.*

Written, as it should seem, by one of the evangelical preachers, in strains suited to the occasion.

REL I.

## R E L I G I O U S.

*A Letter on the Doctrine of the Trinity; addressed to the Baptist Society, at Guilborough, Northamptonshire. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1795.*

The author of this pamphlet, Mr. E. Sharman, was, it seems, Baptist minister and a professed Trinitarian: but a labouring man, with whom he was at work, having proposed to him some questions on the subject of the Trinity, which Mr. Sharman could not answer, he felt some degree of shame on the occasion, and immediately began to examine the Scriptures, in order to discover whether the doctrine of the Trinity rested on the word of God, or not. The result of this honest man's inquiry was a firm persuasion that it was unscriptural.

The declaration of his sentiments was very ill received by the members of that society with whom he had been in communion; and he complains of being treated with all the harshness and severity that is generally shown to an unprincipled apostate. The object of this pamphlet is to expostulate with his old friends on the sincerity of his conduct, and to vindicate the tenets which he has adopted —

‘Another more weighty reason’ (he adds) ‘than what regarded either myself, or the rights of others, which induced me to print my thoughts on the doctrine of the Trinity was, that I considered the propagation of this doctrine as an infringement on the rights of God. As I am a professed friend of God, I thought myself bound to use all my powers to vindicate his rights.’ P. 11.

Notwithstanding the awkwardness, and, we may add, the silly presumption of this passage, as well as a few more, the author discovers considerable acuteness in his reasoning; and as he possesses not the advantages of a classical education (which, by the way, seems to be mentioned only that it may be interpreted in his favour) he may, in many respects, be deemed *sapiens abnormis*.

As to the new light of Unitarianism which he professes to have acquired, we think he values it too highly; and, on many occasions, appears to have taken the mere shadow or semblance of evidence, for the reality. If want of powers to fully comprehend the doctrines of revealed religion were to be made a sufficient ground for rejecting them, what would there be left that deserved the name of revelation? This good man might go on and blot out every article of his creed. But his principal argument is, that the Trinity can no where be proved in Scripture. We must observe that he has not presented the public with any formal examination of the various texts of scripture that are usually adduced in support of the doctrine in question, but has only given us the result of his inquiries on his own mind.

We

We are great advocates for the right of private judgment, on which Mr. Sharman insists so strenuously. Common candour will lead every man to believe that another's professions on religious subjects are sincere, where there is no apparent motive to the contrary; but whether his shifting one set of tenets for another, at an advanced season of life, does not furnish some ground of suspicion with respect to the soundness of his mind and the stability of his character, — and whether his new doctrines may have, in the eye of impartial reason, the weight of superior evidence and the sanction of truth, — are very distinct questions.

It cannot be expected, that, as reviewers only of literature, we should enter the lists of controversy on any subject, — much less on a point of polemical divinity that has of late years been so fully and learnedly discussed by both parties.

However, though many might feel regret at Mr. Sharman's change of opinion, and more disapprove of the attempt which he has made to subvert what has been considered as an essential article of the established creed, yet all will approve of the truly Christian sentiments with which he concludes his letter —

‘There may be very different opinions passed on each of our conduct amongst men; but let us remember that we are accountable to an higher tribunal than that of mortals. All our actions are weighed before the Almighty in an impartial balance. We are always in the presence of him who is to be our judge; how careful ought we to be that we offend not with our tongues? We may irritate each others passions to sin before we are aware. We may offend our God while we think we are doing him service. In a little time we shall all stand before his bar together, to receive our just reward. It will be to our unspeakable happiness to meet with his approbation; and to hear him say, thou hast been faithful over a few things; I will make thee ruler over many; enter thou into the joy of thy Lord!

‘If we cannot exactly agree in our opinions, let us cordially unite to walk in all holy practices; this will be an effectual way to be useful to mankind and glorify our God. This is the best evidence to our own conscience, and to others of the sincerity of our hearts. All our pretences to religion are vain without holiness of life: therefore let us lay aside all malice, and evil speaking, and bitterness; praying for, forbearing with, and forgiving one another, as we expect God for Christ's sake will forgive us. As he that hath called us is holy, so may we be in all holy conversation and godliness, continually sowing to the spirit, and we shall in the end reap life everlasting.’ P. 73.

*Dominion*

*Dominion over the Faith of Christians discountenanced, in a Sermon, preached, on Sunday 3d July, 1796, in the Meeting-House, at St. Thomas's in the Borough of Southwark; being the first Sermon, after Acceptance of the Pastoral Office, by James Tayler. 12mo. 6d. Kearsley. 1796.*

The preacher, after having instanced in what manner the church of Rome has exercised dominion over the faith of Christians, proceeds thus —

‘ But, farther, ministers of the gospel lord it over the faith of their hearers, when they enforce the belief of any particular tenet by threatening the unbeliever with separation from the society of which he is a member, or with the infliction of any other temporal evil, or disadvantage; or by the solemn denunciation of divine vengeance in the future world.

‘ There is a species of persecution, which, though less cruel than that exercised by the church of Rome, is nevertheless persecution, and the offspring of bigotry; and that is, the promotion or repression of opinions, not by reasoning in defence of, or against, them, but by attaching to the profession of them credit and reward, or odium and disgrace. What right have any persons to expect, that a man should embrace sentiments, of the propriety of which they cannot convince him? To aim at an imposition of them by exciting the fear of losing his respectability, credit, and influence in society, is indeed to exercise an authority over his faith. To require of any one, as a qualification for sharing in the privileges of his fellow citizens, that he shall subscribe to certain articles of faith, whether he can believe them or not, is a harsh and unmerited act of severity, calculated to check the free exercise of the understanding, and compel rational beings to an implicit belief. Nevertheless, a subscription to articles, to which numbers cannot conscientiously subscribe, forms a part of the scheme of all church establishments: the doctrines of which we may, therefore, pronounce to be supported, and recommended, by other means than mere conviction of their conformity to reason and the revealed will of God.

‘ Neither do Christian ministers lord it in a less degree over the faith of those who attend upon their preaching, when they attempt to impose their own opinions by the denunciation of divine vengeance against all who, whether conscientiously or not, hesitate to receive them as undoubted truths.

‘ All who accept not their faith whole and undefiled, shall, they will tell you, perish without doubt everlastingly. Yet there are thousands who cannot receive it; men of as strong intellect, as much honesty, as choice morals, and as pure and sublime a piety, as they can boast.

‘ It is not the Bible, nor the language of the Bible, to which they demand an entire assent; but to certain doctrines inferred by  
them



them from that phraseology which others apprehend to convey a very different meaning. Where does the sacred book assert, that "whosoever will be saved, must worship one God in Trinity, and Trinity in unity, neither confounding the persons nor dividing the substance?" That "the Father is God, that the Son is God, and that the Holy Ghost is God — every person by himself God; and yet they are not three Gods, but one God?" — Where is it written by the inspired penmen, that "the three persons, though the Son was begotten by the Father, and the Holy Ghost proceeding from the Father and Son, yet are co-eternal and co-equal?" In what chapter, and at what verse, of our Testaments, do we find these words — "Christ is perfect God and perfect man: equal to the Father, as touching his godhead; inferior to the father, as touching his manhood: and, though God and man, is not two, but one Christ?" Where do the scriptures say, that "the Divine Being has arbitrarily elected some of his creatures to everlasting happiness, and consigned the rest to everlasting perdition?"

'Yet these are some of those articles of faith, which if a man does not, cannot, believe, or will not profess, he is exposed to certain civil incapacities, and is degraded from an equality of privileges with those of his fellow citizens who do believe them, or at least scruple not to make profession of them. These are some of those articles of faith, a doubt or denial of the truth of which is, by some ministers, pronounced to be a crime which renders men obnoxious to eternal damnation.

'It is in vain to plead conscience and integrity. It is in vain to say, "I cannot command my belief; your arguments really do not bring conviction to my mind, of the divine original and authority of such opinions; and I cannot, without sacrificing my integrity, profess sentiments that are not the sentiments of my heart." The reply is short and unconditional: "Believe, or be damned everlastingly; profess to believe, or suffer those civil incapacities which are the mild and necessary punishment of contumacy and self-will."

'When ministers of the gospel thus preach with a tone of authority in consequence of being countenanced and supported by the ruling powers; or when, availing themselves of the ignorance and prejudices of their auditory, they would, under the character of ambassadors of Christ, enforce belief by brandishing the bolts of heavenly displeasure; when they endeavour to maintain and propagate opinions, not by an appeal to the human understanding, but by exciting the fear of civil injury, or the dread of everlasting punishment; do they not afford glaring instances of tyranny over the faith of individuals or assemblies? With what consistency can they say, in the language of Paul, "not that we lord it over your faith, but are helpers of your joy?" Or of Peter, "Of a truth I perceive, that God is no respecter of persons; but, in every nation, he that feareth him, and worketh righteousness, is accepted with him." r. 7.

Who

Who can read this quotation without the utmost surprise, after recollecting the unanswerable defences which have of late years appeared of the Test and Corporation acts! and of the Trinity and other doctrines here objected to! by the many-champions of our church in general, bishop Horley in particular, and the preachers of the Bampton lecture?

*The Use and Abuse of this World: a Sermon, preached at St. Bene's Gracechurch, in the City of London, on Sunday, Oct. 9, 1796: and published at the Request of the Audience. By William Jones, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1796.*

A moral discourse on time, wealth, food, cloathing, matrimony, speech, printed at the request of the audience sooner than the author intended. It is dedicated to Dr. Gaskin, who is complimented for having dedicated his life 'to the *business* of Christianity, as well as to the other common offices of devotion and charity.' Why the word *business* should have been printed in italics, and what it means, we cannot explain to our readers. In the sermon itself there is nothing which the audience could so impatiently require as not to give it 'the chance of some farther improvements,' which would not have been ill bestowed on the style and language of this composition.

*The Manner pointed out in which the Common Prayer was read in private by the late Mr. Garrick, for the Instruction of a young Clergyman: from whose Manuscript Notes this Pamphlet is composed. By J. W. Anderson, A. M. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1797.*

The little attention that is paid by some of the clergy to the reading in the desk, deserves particular censure. There is a vast difference between indifference and affectation; and though we recommend, as the best means of affecting an audience, a full conviction of the importance of the duty in which the reader is engaged, yet he may derive much advantage from the judicious hints given in this pamphlet on the conduct to be observed both by the clergyman and the clerk in various parts of the service.

*Thomas Paine vindicated. Being a short Letter to the Bishop of Landaff's Reply to Thomas Paine's Age of Reason. By a Deist. 8vo. 1s. Crosby. 1796.*

We shrewdly suspect this letter-writer, and Mr. A. M'Leod, to be *alter et idem*; but if not, they certainly are *par nobile*.

*The Distempers and Decay of the World, and Repentance the only Remedy; a Sermon, preached on Occasion of the late Fast, March 8, 1797, at Tavistock Chapel, Broad-Court, Long Acre, and at St. Andrew, Holborn. By the Rev. Walter Harper, &c. &c. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. 1797.*

Politics badly handled,—calls to repentance, without pathos,—and the other usual topics for the day, which the hearers have probably forgotten, and few readers will give themselves the trouble of examining.

The

*The True Knowledge of God and Man; of the great Sabbath on Earth; and of the Restoration of all Things; with some essential Remarks on the Duty we owe to our Creator.* 8vo. 2s. 1797.

'The merciful permission for publishing this book was received on the 14th day of March 1797, at noon, 12 o'clock; for which mercy the Lord be praised for ever.' P. 112.

'Whoever neglects to obtain this book as soon as it is to be had, or rejects (when he has it during four months) the mercy which is offered therein, will be neglected and rejected likewise!' P. 113.

Among other precious pieces of information, we are told that there are exactly 4,900 sins to be committed against the ten commandments: and in the midst of his dreams our author tells us that the theory of Swedenborg is a wonderful romance.

### M E D I C A L.

*A Popular View of the Effects of the Venereal Disease upon the Constitution: collected from the best Writers. To which are prefixed, Miscellaneous Observations, by a Physician.* 8vo. 3s. Robinsons.

The author of this publication laments that 'no attempts have been made to shew mankind in general the pernicious consequences of venereal complaints;' and observes, that 'the books written upon these subjects have been meant *entirely* for medical men.' This is, at least, contrary to our observation, and, we believe, to that of almost every other professional man, who cannot but be aware how very numerous are the popular treatises which successively issue from the press at this period. We are led, therefore, to consider this only as a sort of wilful ignorance in the author, who perhaps thought the fact so palpably otherwise, that any addition to their number could not but require a satisfactory apology.

This work, with the exception of the first section and some occasional connecting paragraphs, is wholly made up of extracts, copied verbatim, from different authors, forming together an odd sort of patch-work, some of the parts of which are mere shreds and parings; as for instance—

#### 'SECT. XV. Tendency to produce other Diseases.

'A clap either produces or is supposed to produce many disorders besides those already mentioned, and which are totally different from the original disease.

'Most of these diseases attack men advanced beyond middle age, although many if not all of them are at times found in younger men. HUNTER.' P. 115.

We cannot help noticing in this work the prevailing tendency, as well in the observations of the author, as in the extracts he has drawn in support of them, to alarm the patient. The doctor has,  
doubtless,

doubtless, *good reasons* for this; but we think he should have had more tenderness for the happiness of private families than to assert that —

‘Many children are *born with* the venereal disease, and many are born weak and puny through the weakness that was brought upon their parents by it.’ p. 17.

With regard to the former of these assertions, it has never yet been proved that a child had the venereal disease in utero; and Mr. Hunter, certainly the highest authority on this subject, disallows, or at least discountenances, the fact altogether. He asserts (contrary to an authority which our author has preferred, but to which we attach very little respect) that ‘even the *blood* of a pocky person has no power of contaminating, and is not capable of giving the disease to another, even by inoculation.’ *Treat. on Ven. Dis.* p. 292. If this be the case, — and that (as we well know) by the blood only subsists the communication between the mother and the foetus, — what reason is there for representing, in the light of a common occurrence, an event, against the possibility of which there exist many strong reasons, and which, among the numerous occasions which the prevalence of the disease affords, has never yet been demonstrated in a single instance?

We shall only add, that we find nothing excellent in this publication, which is not as much the compositor’s as the compiler’s. Instead of adopting the ideas of preceding writers as many of his contemporaries have done, this learned physician has transcribed their words; and so far his candour is more conspicuous. But we do not perceive that, on the whole, the unprofessional reader, for whose use this *View of the venereal disease* is designed, will be better informed by it than by any other of the numerous and transitory publications on the same subject.

*Domestic Midwife; or, the best Means of preventing Danger in Child-Birth, considered.* By Margaret Stephen. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Fores. 1795.

‘Before the reader enters upon the following treatise,’ (says Mrs. Stephens) ‘it may be proper to inform him why it is so brief.

‘In the first place, had it been more prolix, it might have been more perplexing than instructive, to some of those for whose use it is intended; for I would not confine its usefulness to midwives only, because it will be of service to any woman who is, or may be a mother.

‘Secondly, I teach my own pupils the anatomy of the pelvis, &c. and of the foetal skull, on preparations which I keep by me, with every thing else relative to practice in nature, at labours; also turning, and the use of the forceps, and other obstetric instruments, on a machine which I believe few teachers can equal; together with the cases and proper seasons which justify such expedients,

and

and I make them write whatever of my lectures may prove useful to them in their future practice, for which they are as well qualified, as men.

‘ Therefore I consider the outlines of what they have already studied at large, sufficient to refresh their memory ; and as it is a small volume, it may be carried in their pockets, when they are called to labours : in this, Dr. Denman’s publication of his aphorisms, will justify me. However lawful it may be, for one author to borrow ideas from another, when public good is intended; I have not done so ; and though I have many of the best ancient and modern publications, both foreign and English, nothing will be found in the following sheets, but what I have experienced in the course of my practice, except what I have inserted as the opinion of others.

‘ The division of the symphysis pubis, practised on the continent, and its lamentable consequences, will be a sufficient reason for my rejecting speculative hypotheses, however celebrated their authors. I am well aware, that this little work is not likely to escape a good dissection by the literary anatomists ; but this will not deter me from publishing useful truths, which I am confident no man can confute.’ P. 3.

We are sorry the well-founded apprehensions expressed in the last paragraph did not deter Mrs. Stephens from putting herself in the way of our censures, which are too imperiously demanded on this occasion, to be with-held. To her patients the perusal of such a book would be detrimental, and to her pupils (if she has any) useless. Yet though the subject is, on the whole, too learnedly treated for the one, and too ignorantly for the other, we must allow there are some parts which deserve to be considered as exceptions, and appear to have been added by some well-informed practitioner.

## N O V E L S.

*The Wanderer of the Alps: or, Alphonso. A Romance. 2 Vols.*  
12mo. 7s. sewed. Lanc. 1796.

The passage with which this production commences, will serve as a specimen of the author’s style, which is not less remote from simplicity and purity, than the incidents of romances in general are repugnant to nature and probability.

‘ The sun had just sunk beneath the craggy summit of a gloomy rock, that shot its brown spires above the waving tops of the tall pines, and its last rays cast a glowing tint of purple on the low clouds that seemed to roll with elastic majesty over the barren bosom of the Alpine ridges; the hazy mist of night darkened in the solitary grove, and a deep murmur broke through the branches, as the evening breeze ushered in the queen of night, who now, in clouded majesty, emerged from a dark gloom, and shot at intervals a pale

a pale lustre on the extensive forests; the brown rocks glimmered in the transient ray, which served, as it broke from the bosom of the opening clouds, to direct the solitary steps of Alphonso; who, alone attended by his faithful squire Conrade, had wandered from mid-day through the tangling mazes of the gloomy Alps.' Vol. i. p. 1.

In the story which occupies these two volumes, there is very little originality or merit to apologise for a feeble and bombastic style:—the stern and unprincipled 'Sebastian' exhibits the more than brotherly features of 'Montoni,' in Mrs. Radcliffe's *Mysteries of Udolpho*; several of the leading incidents, and many parts of the descriptive scenery, are derived from the same source,—and it is only in the truly chivalrous character of 'Osmond,' that the author suspends our disgust at the hackneyed and borrowed machinery of *haunted castles, skeletons, banditti, &c.*

*Manfredi, Baron St. Osmond. An Old English Romance. By Sarah Lansdell, Tenterden. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed. Lane. 1796.*

To adapt the species of composition called 'romance' to the cultivated literary taste of the present period, requires considerable talents:—and of this circumstance the authoress of the production before us seems sufficiently aware, by the following passage in her introduction —

'It may be considered as presumption in a young authoress to venture her little productions abroad in the world, when there are so many works extant of Radcliffe's, Smith's, Bennett's and Burney's; who so greatly excel in this species of composition. But let it be considered, that however inexperienced the judgment, or confined the circle of ideas, few persons who find in themselves an inclination to scribbling, but are willing to make one trial of their ability in that flight, wherein some rise to the highest pitch their sanguine hopes could reach, while others fall to rise no more.' Vol. i. p. vi.

We wish that the merit of this performance was equal to the modesty of the passage we have quoted; but criticism must do its duty by pronouncing that the romance of Manfredi has little interest of sentiment or incident, and that the characters of the 'baron St. Osmond' and 'lady Egwinor' are palpably copied from Shakspeare's Macbeth.

*The Submissions of Dependence, a Novel. Interspersed with Poetry. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Hookham and Carpenter. 1797.*

This work is rather a collection of scraps and fragments than a regular story. The characters are feebly sketched, and the outlines are common. The folly of dependence on the great, however, which is the moral, supplies the author with some striking incidents,

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and liberal sentiments, such as cannot be too often inculcated. The poetical pieces are above mediocrity; and the general story, though hastily and negligently told, will add somewhat to instruction, if not to amusement. We except the vulgar *slang* of Sir Robert Foster and his companions, which outrages probability, and would disgrace Billingsgate.

*Percy, or the Friends, a Novel.* 12mo. 5s. Boards. Wilkie. 1797.

In ushering this novel into the world, the Advertisement states, that—

‘It is humbly hoped by the author of these lines that an indulgent public will not be “severe to mark what is amiss.”’

The author need not have deprecated the severity of criticism which we believe few would take the trouble to exercise on a production so much below the most insipid of its kind.

#### L A W.

*The New Pocket Conveyancer, or, Attorney's complete Pocket-Book: comprising a choice Selection, and great Variety of the most valuable and approved Precedents in Conveyancing. In which the Modern Forms introduced by Conveyancers of the highest Eminence now in Practice are particularly attended to; and the Efficacy of them explained. To which are also added Preliminary Observations relative to the Nature and Use of each particular Species of Deed, an Introductory Discourse on the Subject of Deeds in general, and conclusive Remarks on the Enurement and Construction of Deeds.* By James Barry Bird, of New Inn, Esq. 2 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Clarke and Son. 1796.

Mr. Bird has anticipated, by remarking in his Preface, that—

‘The profession may possibly be surprized at seeing another publication on the subject of the ensuing sheets, in addition to the many treatises which have already appeared; but’ (adds M. Bird) ‘their surprize will, it is presumed, immediately cease, when informed of the superior advantages possessed by the present work, in combining the theory with the practice of conveyancing; a requisite, which, though exceedingly material, has hitherto been entirely neglected. To supply this defect it was, principally, that I was induced to compile the present volumes: in which, besides a copious introduction on the nature of deeds in general, and conclusive observations on their enurement and construction, I have prefixed to each species some preliminary remarks on its distinguishing properties and peculiar efficacy. This will enable the student to perceive with readiness which species of assurance is best calculated to answer the views of the parties in any particular transaction, and at the same time instruct him in the mode of preparing such assurance according

according to the most modern and approved form. But lest, in these remarks, I should inadvertently have omitted any material point, or should the student wish for more ample information on any particular deed, I have moreover subjoined references to such books of authority as have treated the subject more at large.' Vol. i. p. iii.

We have shewn Mr. Bird the candour to extract his own account of the publication, which, in our opinion, by no means possesses a corresponding importance:—it is of the class to which belong 'Every Man his own Lawyer,' &c. &c. and, though it may be of some use to the small and middling attorney, cannot be recommended as a work fit to be consulted by students of the law; on that very curious, difficult, and important branch of the science, conveyancing.

*An Examination into the Particulars of the two last Elections for the Borough of Southwark, in May and November, 1796; wherein it is proved from the Spirit of the Act of King William, commonly called, the Treating Act, that the late Determination upon it by a Committee of the House of Commons was, with the best Intentions, founded in Error; with Thoughts on the Privileges of that House in general, and those in particular on Cases of Elections. By M. Dawes, Esq. of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law, and one of the Assessors to the Returning Officer. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Butterworth. 1797.*

Mr. Dawes's competence to arraign the decision of the committee of the house of commons in the case of Mr. Thellusson, will, doubtless, appear very suspicious to his reader, after the following passage in his address to sir Watkin Lewes—

'I do not address myself to you in the language of a mere hackneyed practical advocate, to divert your, or the public judgment, by ingenious sophistry, for the sake of victory; or logical subtilty, for a partial purpose. I have long distinguished that merely to practise the law, does not require any extraordinary share of ability. To propound and dispense it, require genius and learning, taste and integrity. A man may be a brilliant advocate, but a shallow lawyer. His alternate defence of right and wrong, in a course of time, as a kind of trade, generally takes away from the purity of his intention. His dexterity is mistaken for wisdom; and the vicious employ him to escape justice, the virtuous to obtain it. Exceptions there are; but they are so few, who are like a Saunders, a Hardwicke, &c. that they are only remembered for their singularity.'

P. ix.

The mangled sentiment from Junius that concludes this paragraph, will not apologise for the gross nonsense of the preceding sentence. To convince our readers that our author's law is not better than his philology, we select his construction of the disabling clause in the Treating Act—



"Every *such* person so giving, promising, &c. shall be declared disabled and incapacitated upon *such* election to serve in parliament for *such* county, town, city, borough, or place, &c." What election? — The election, a majority of votes had constituted of him, upon which he was returned, and not any other. Having suffered his disappointment for his trespass on the Treating Act, he becomes a new man. As persons convicted of grand and petty larceny, are restored to their credit by their punishment, it would be oppressive that an offender under this Treating Act should not, after making his election void, be restored to his credit also, so as to be an unblemished candidate for another. And nothing but a specific statute can make him again ineligible. The pronoun *such* is relative, and applies to the substantive word *election*; taking in another by the way, which is the conjunction, or conjunctive article *that*: — the amount whereof is *that* he is disabled and incapable of sitting for *that* election only, without any reference to a subsequent one.' P. 13.

Mr. Dawes has disclaimed sophistry; but there cannot surely be a display of more contemptible sophistry than this: — it is of the lowest kind, — a play upon words; and the feeble attempt it makes to pervert the meaning of a very wholesome statute, is characteristically supported by the illustration of convictions for 'grand and petty larceny.'

We know not how far this production may be adapted to the critical taste or legal learning of the worthy knight to whom it is addressed: but we have experienced neither amusement nor conviction from its contents.

*Letter to William Bosville, Esq. on the Partiality of Mr. Tierney's Petition to the House of Commons, considered in Mr. Tierney's own Sense of a rational Reform in Parliament. By a Member of the Whig Club. 8vo. 6d. Johnson. 1796.*

This Letter is a manly and rational remonstrance on a supposed temporising forbearance of Mr. Tierney, in the late memorable election for the borough of Southwark. After displaying in lively and striking colours the corrupt influence which Mr. Tierney had to encounter from the partisans of his opponent Mr. Thelluson, the letter-writer thus observes —

'Mr. Tierney ought to have made one glorious effort to render the borough of Southwark a memorable instance of unequivocal reform.' The means were in his hands; and however entrenched, however supported Mr. Thornton might have been, by private worth and public estimation, as an individual; however surrounded by the dependents of government, and apparently shielded by the familiarity of his name as a veteran member of the commons; notwithstanding these advantages, sir — and advantages they certainly are in an atmosphere still obscured by public lethargy — Mr.

Thornton

Thornton must have yielded to the same law by which his colleague has been vanquished. With regard to the propriety or impropriety of attacking so respectable a private character, Mr. Tierney ought to have considered that he had nothing to do with the moral virtues of a man, when the question before the public was purely general and political. Far be it from me, sir, to insinuate upon this occasion, that Mr. Thornton would have been convicted in the same amount of illegal practices that have so successfully been proved against Mr. Theluston. I ground my argument upon the presumptive evidence of Mr. Tierney's own apology for the avowed partiality of his conduct; and as he does not even suggest that Mr. Thornton was guiltless of the same unfair and unconstitutional means by which his colleague obtained his first election, I am justified in attaching to that conduct a dangerous compromise between private merit and public delinquency. As a candidate for Southwark, setting even political opinion apart, Mr. Thornton should have appeared, in Mr. Tierney's apprehension, divested of all his domestic and commercial qualities; he ought to have been judged in no other light than what the simplicity of truth could offer. The prism of ministerial influence could not have obtruded its diversified rays and colours, to dazzle or confound; nor ought the fascination of private worth to have been preferred to the less gracious, but the more beneficial form of general utility. If the same means—no matter how, or in what proportion—were adopted in common by Mr. Thornton and Mr. Theluston to secure their election (and to judge by Mr. Tierney's speech, but most especially by the cause which they were jointly predetermined to support, it is reasonable to presume that similar measures had been more or less pursued by both); if the same means, I repeat, were adopted by Mr. Thornton, under a conviction of which Mr. Theluston was declared unduly elected, Mr. Thornton should have been equally prosecuted by Mr. Tierney; for he was an enemy to that injured cause, in the defence of which Mr. Tierney had ventured to oppose wealth, interest, and connection. The constitution must have been equally wounded by them both, the freedom of election equally checked, and the advances to a rational reform equally impeded.' P. 7.

This is certainly the doctrine of *consistency*, and the circumstances to which the letter alludes, remain to be accounted for on Mr. Tierney's professed principles.

#### M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

*The German Miscellany; consisting of Dramas, Dialogues, Tales, and Novels. Translated from that Language, by A. Thomson, Author of a Poem on Whist; the Paradise of Taste, &c. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Vernon and Hood. 1796.*

The translator informs us—'that if this specimen has the good fortune

fortune to be favourably received, he has sufficient store of original pieces beside him to furnish several volumes of the same entertainment.' And in perusing his work, we find that he has endeavoured to promote a call for the remaining volumes, by leaving some of the most impressive tales in the present unfinished, with a — '*to be continued*,' at the end of them. This is hardly fair: Mr. Thomson should not force by the *incompleteness* of the purchase, what, we doubt not, he would have induced by its *excellence*. He has, indeed, presented the public with a very interesting volume. The pieces which he has selected, are such as none can read without amusement, few without receiving instruction, — and that instruction of no mean importance. We cannot recommend too warmly 'The Nutshell, a Tale from Meissner's Sketches.' The melancholy it may leave on the mind, will be amply compensated by the lesson of prudence which it so pathetically enforces. The Dialogue from the same author, entitled 'In what Language should an Author write,' is ingenious and sensible; and its shortness enables us to extract it.

'Lord Clarke, during his short residence in a certain town of Germany, paid a visit to one of our principal literati. They conversed together for some time about Plato and Cicero, about Livy and Thucydides; and the noble stranger displayed so much erudition, as filled the other with no small astonishment; who, at last, seizing his hand and pressing it, exclaimed: How I rejoice, my lord, to find in a person of your condition, and more especially in an Englishman, such an uncommon veneration for writers of antiquity, united with so great a degree of penetration.

'*L. Clarke.* Your joy, my dear doctor, surprizes me not a little. What you value so highly, is only our school exercises; and what every Englishman of common diligence carries home with him from our universities.

'*Doctor.* Indeed, my lord! You will however pardon me for thinking, that your lordship's countrymen are still very far from having a true taste for the works of the ancients; and that it will not be otherwise, so long as your authors continue to write only in English.

'*L. Clarke.* That I do not entirely comprehend. How then would you have our authors to write? — Are your's accustomed to write always in Greek or Latin?

'*Doctor.* There you have hit upon the cause of my uneasiness. Formerly, my lord, they always did so; but for these thirty years past, that excellent custom has been discontinued by degrees; and our taste, of consequence, is very much on the decline.

'*L. Clarke. (half smiling)* But are there not still many, who write in one of these ancient languages?

'*Doctor.* O yes: heaven be praised, we have yet many a fine Latinist among us.

'*L. Clarke.*

' *L. Clarke.* But tell me, then, I beseech you, do these fine Latinists make their own shoes ?

' *Doctor.* What a question !——

' *L. Clarke.* Or do they tan the leather for their own boots ?

' *Doctor.* For heaven's sake, my lord ! how came such an idea into your head ?

' *L. Clarke.* And yet they write Latin,

' *Doctor.* (*a little displeased*) Nay then : but could I only perceive the connection between Latin, and being their own shoe-makers.

' *L. Clarke.* My dear sir, nothing more evident. With us the man of riches and quality, applies himself to study, and endeavours to penetrate as far as possible, into the secrets of nature, and the truths of philosophy ; into the principles of our duty, and the end of our being ; he enriches his memory with the wisdom of antiquity ; and notes down every thing remarkable in his own age. In a word, he is occupied in preparing his mind, by the laborious acquisition of a multiplicity of sciences, either for a life of reflection or activity. He afterwards communicates the result of his inquiries in a language intelligible to the bulk of the people ; well knowing that the labour of the hands, engages so closely the time of his fellow citizens, as must entirely preclude them from the labours of the head. It is in expectation of this, and of other good offices, and not merely for the sake of his money, that the plebeians labour to render him comfortable ; and by supplying him with the necessaries and conveniences of life, procure him that leisure which he could not otherwise enjoy. But were he to write in a language which they do not understand, what of consequence could afford them neither instruction nor amusement, he would deserve but little, that they should toil in his behalf. Such, doctor, is our way of thinking in Britain, and surely the principles upon which it is founded, are too just and rational, not to meet with the approbation, not only of the Germans, but of every nation of sense.' p. 181.

*Dialogues in a Library.* 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.

These dialogues are laudably intended to connect the study of natural philosophy with the doctrines of revealed religion ; they are distinguished by an easy and elegant propriety of language, rather than by originality of matter ; they, however, have the merit of conveying many good moral sentiments, and much information on literary and philosophical topics, in a manner which will prove agreeable to most readers, and instructive to those who have not leisure to explore the depths of science.

*Essays on various Subjects : in which some Characters of the present Age are introduced.* Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Low. 1796.

The respectable motives avowed in the Advertisement to this publication may be considered as some apology for the feebleness and insipidity by which it is characterised. To those who have had the felicity to enjoy the insinuating beauties of 'the Spectator,' and the strongly

strongly discriminative eloquence of 'the Rambler,' *moral essays* without originality of sentiment, and *characters, from life* without either strength or vivacity of delineation, can scarcely afford pleasure.

*Memoirs of the present Countess of Derby, (late Miss Farren) : including Anecdotes of several distinguished Persons. By Petronius Arbitrator, Esq. 4to. 1s. 6d. Symonds. 1797.*

It would have been surprising if Miss Farren's elevation to the peerage had passed unnoticed by the tribe of catch-penny writers. The aim of the author of these Memoirs appears to have been to obtain hush-money : but disappointed in that, he has published all he knew, all he had heard, and all he could invent, which amounts to very little. His only charge against Miss Farren is want of liberality, which, if exerted upon him, would have probably been thrown away. He is so incorrigibly ignorant as to bring the earl of Chesterfield into the Hay-market theatre some years after he was dead, and speaks of his having published his Letters on Politeness to his son—

*crimine ab uno*

*Disce omnes.*

*Mr. Palmer's Case explained. By G. Bonnor. 8vo. 1s. Richardson. 1797.*

When a personal controversy has arisen to a considerable height between any two parties, the weapons with which they uphold the contest are usually brought forth in the most polished state of preparation; and it is endeavoured to make up for what they may want in point, by a nice attention to their furniture in all other respects. If we may judge from the straight-forward manner in which the materials of this pamphlet are put together, its author's reliance is upon the facts alone; and these indeed appear to be undeniable, since they are supported by actual copies of Mr. Palmer's own letters. An earlier publication of this statement; the author seems, from a commendable delicacy, to have forborne, till Mr. Palmer's application to parliament rendered it absolutely necessary that the legislature should not be duped by any misrepresentation. It is no part of our duty to enter into subjects of this nature: but we will nevertheless observe, that Mr. Palmer will accomplish an Herculean task if he recover from this blow which his adversary has dealt him; since nothing short of proving the letters direct forgeries can, in our opinion, do him any service.

*Pièces Choïses de l'Ami des Enfants de M. Berquin. A l'Usage des Ecoles. Avec un Frontispice.*

*Select Pieces from Mons. Berquin's Ami des Enfants. 3s. second. Dulau. 1796.*

Many selections have been made from M. Berquin's works for the use of the young. The present has the advantage of containing a great portion of matter in a convenient space.

# THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For AUGUST, 1797.

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*Remarks on the Antiquities of Rome and its Environs: being a Classical and Topographical Survey of the Ruins of that celebrated City. Illustrated with Engravings. By Andrew Lumisden, Esq. Member of the Royal and Antiquary Societies of Edinburgh. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Nicol. 1797.*

**I**T is not easy to exhaust the subject of the antiquities of the Roman metropolis. A new work, therefore, on this head, if executed with judgment, cannot but be an object of some attraction.

In the Introduction to this performance, a sketch is given of the history of the city of Rome. A town seems to have existed on the same spot before the time of Romulus, the reputed founder; and, in all probability, he only enlarged and improved it.

‘The first artists who ornamented Rome’ (says Mr. Lumisden) ‘were Tuscans. Solidity and even grandeur characterize their works: witness the foundations of the Capitol, and the remains of the Cloaca Maxima. Indeed the many Etruscan monuments still preserved are a proof of the taste of that ingenious people in the fine arts.’ p. 7.

But the evident superiority of Grecian taste produced a neglect of Etruscan models; and—

‘The magnificent buildings erected at Rome, towards the end of the republic and during the empire, were executed either by Greek artists, or by their Roman scholars.’ p. 7.

The author observes, that—

‘We must not form to ourselves the same idea of *Roma Quadrata*, founded by Romulus, consisting of a few huts built of wood and reeds, and confined to the Palatine hill, and of *Imperial Rome*, the capital of the world under the emperors.’ p. 12.

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A more unnecessary remark was never made ; for even the most ignorant readers never could entertain such an idea.

The body of the publication commences with an account of the gates of Rome, and of the most remarkable antiquities which appear on the roads leading from them. The outside of the Porta del Popolo, in the opinion of this writer, is worthy of the praise of elegance ; and this access to the city is magnificent. He invalidates the conclusions of Piranesi, with regard to the situation of the ancient Pons Milvius ; but he is inclined to adopt the sentiments of Zanche, respecting the site of Veii, though the grounds of the supposed discovery are not satisfactory.

Near the Porta Pia, is a building, which antiquaries consider as having formerly been a temple of Bacchus ; but Mr. Lumishden supposes it to have been the sepulchre of a daughter of the emperor Constantine. It is now used as a church, dedicated to St. Constanza.

In treating of the gate of St. Sebastian, our antiquary mentions the discovery of a sepulchre of the Cornelian family, in the year 1780, in a vineyard belonging to signor Sassi —

‘ The vault of this sepulchre’ (he says) ‘ is dug in the tufo, like the sand pits or catacombs ; in many places plastered over with a hard cement ; and the inscriptions, recording the names and honours of this illustrious family, are placed on the sides. The facing of the basement of the monument is of that volcanic stone, which the Romans call *peperino*, with a rustic cornice. The building above the vault seems to have been of a later period, and now serves for the foundation of the small house and offices of the vineyard. The discovery of this sepulchre has thrown some new light on the genealogy and history of the Scipios, as well as on ancient geography. Aided with these inscriptions, and the Roman historians, the learned M. Dutens has given a genealogical tree of the family of the Scipios. The pope, Pius VI. I am informed, has caused the sarcophagi and inscriptions to be removed from the vault, where they had remained untouched for so many centuries, to the museum of the Vatican. They are of *peperino*, before the luxury of marble had been introduced at Rome. The most remarkable of these monuments is that of Lucius Cornelius Scipio Barbatus, great-grandfather of Asiaticus and Africanus, who had been consul with Cneius Fulvius, in the year of Rome 455, i. e. thirty-five years before the first Punic war. It is an elegant piece of Doric architecture, which shows that Grecian taste was then known at Rome : and the inscription on it is the most ancient of any hitherto discovered.’ p. 79.

The remains of the mausoleum of Cæcilia Metella are more magnificent than the ruins of the Cornelian sepulchre—

‘ This mausoleum gives an high idea of the riches and grandeur of the person here interred. The lower part of it is square, and the upper part round. The walls are of a vast thickness, and intrusted with Tiburtine-stones of an immense size. An elegant frieze of marble runs round the whole, ornamented with rams’ heads, joined together with festoons, above which are pateræ and other decorations. The beautiful sarcophagus, in which lay the body of Cæcilia, now stands in the court of the Farnese palace. Untouched by barbarous hands, this sepulchre would have lasted whilst the earth remained: but in the low age, during the civil wars of the Roman barons, it was converted into a castle, and they built a parapet and port holes round its top; This seems to have been done by the Gætani family, for we find their arms on the gate of a considerable fortification which remains here. Above these arms there is carved a bull’s head, from which this place, probably, is now called Capo di Bove. Piranesi has not only published plates of this sepulchre, but has described the method by which the huge stones and marbles used in this building might have been raised.’ P. 104.

Proceeding to a survey of the seven hills of Rome, Mr. Lumisdan affirms that it is impossible to delineate an exact plan of the former state of the Capitoline hill. Plans and elevations have indeed been given of the buildings which adorned that celebrated scene; but these are merely ideal.

The Palatine hill, though it comprised the whole city in the time of Romulus, served only in the sequel for the imperial palace. Remains of this edifice are yet visible; but they are in a disjointed and defaced condition. Bianchini has pretended to give a plan of the structure; but we cannot fully depend on the accuracy of the representation.

Of the temples and other buildings which formerly stood on the Aventine hill, there are now no remains: but, near the eminence, vestiges of public granaries and magazines may be traced; and, on a plain in the neighbourhood, the ruins of the baths of Caracalla attract the admiration of strangers. In his remarks on the frequency of bathing among the Romans, Mr. Lumisdan takes notice of an indecent practice. ‘ In the licentious times of the empire,’ (he says) ‘ men and women seem to have bathed promiscuously together.’ The two sexes also bathe together in some of the watering-places of Great Britain, but not in a state of absolute nudity. In Russia, however, the custom of promiscuous bathing prevails, or lately did prevail, with all the circumstances of indecorous exposure.



The Celian hill exhibits various remains of aqueducts. On the Esquiline eminence, some ruins of the baths of Titus, as well as vestiges of a supposed palace of that emperor, are discoverable. The survey of the Viminal hill affords the author an opportunity of tracing a plan of the baths of Dioclesian, and of pointing out the respective uses of the different parts of the original structure. Near the seventh (or the Quirinal) hill, appears the beautiful column erected in honour of Trajan. Having given a description of this historical pillar, he adds —

‘ Besides the elegance of the sculpture, executed at the period when that art was in high perfection at Rome, we may consider this wonderful monument as a system of antiquities. For here we remark the manners, dress, discipline, arms, marches, forages, and encampments of the soldiers of that age; the Roman standards, as well as those of the enemy; bridges, passing of rivers, and the form of their ships; sieges, battles, victories, congresses, and peace; allocutions of the emperor, triumphs, sacrifices, libations, victims, altars, the dresses of the priests, and various religious rites.’  
P. 221.

The mention of a building, commonly called the temple of Venus, has produced a remark which is applicable to the general system of pagan mythology, as far as the deities are concerned —

‘ Various names were given, and many temples and statues erected to Venus. It was Asia, the nursery of philosophy and superstition, that gave rise to her worship. The ancient philosophers of that country discoursed much on the origin of things, on the formation of the world, on the first principle and vivifying power. They represented the principle of generation under the figure of a goddess, who gives life to nature, and extends her empire over all. Vulgar-eyes could not penetrate the mystery; hence they looked on the allegory as a real story, and the ingenious fable, invented for their instruction, became the source of all their errors. They gave a body to an abstract principle, which became an object of popular veneration, and was adored as a goddess, who presided over the reproduction of every being.’ P. 238.

With regard to the Pantheon, an opinion has been advanced by the jesuit Lazzari, importing, that it was not a temple, but only a part of the baths of Agrippa. This idea is too weakly supported to require refutation.

The following passage belongs to the description which Mr. Lumifden has given of that edifice —

‘ Round

‘ Round the interior of the Pantheon, there were seven recesses or chapels, formed in the thickness of the walls. Each of these chapels is ornamented with two beautiful columns of giallo antico, fluted. Between these chapels there are altars; but these have been added since the temple was converted into a Christian church.

‘ The walls from the floor to the cornice were divided into compartments, and incrusted with precious marbles. The frieze is of porphyry. Over the great cornice there is an attic, decorated with fourteen niches; between each niche were four pilasters, with panels of different marbles: but this part of the decoration was destroyed by Benedict XIV. whilst I was at Rome. The attic has an entablature, from which immediately springs the arch or vault which covers the whole. This arch for a considerable distance is divided into compartments, which are supposed to have been covered with sculptured plates of silver, but of which there is no vestige. Towards the summit the arch is plain. The Pantheon, being one of those temples which Vitruvius calls *hypæthra*, has no windows, and is only lighted from the summit by a circular opening, the diameter of which is about twenty-seven feet; it may properly be called its eye, and nobly is it lighted. Through this opening the rain indeed falls into the temple; but there is a reservoir, in the middle of the floor, for carrying it off; and for this reason the floor is not level, but slants to this centre.

‘ The roof of the Pantheon, now covered with lead, was formerly covered with plates of gilded brass. These, however, as well as the silver and other metals that enriched the inside of the arch, are said to have been carried away by Constant II. in his visit to Rome, about the year 655.’ p. 282.

‘ The Colosseum, or the amphitheatre of Vespasian, is delineated with accuracy. The account of it is introduced by observations on the barbarous combats, which were exhibited within the buildings of that denomination, and (in earlier times) in the forum or circus.

‘ The first public exhibition of this sort, seems to have been in the 490th year of Rome; when, at the instance of the Bruti, three couples of gladiators fought, in memory of their deceased father, and to do honour to his obsequies. Afterwards, to flatter the people, great personages, and whoever were elected into certain offices, particularly that of ædile, presented combats of gladiators, as a grateful acknowledgment for the favour conferred on them. They were called *munera*, donatives or gifts.

‘ From Pliny we learn that the first show of wild beasts, brought into the circus, was in the year of Rome 502. They were the elephants taken from the Carthaginians, on the victory obtained by Lucius Metellus, in Sicily. But the making them fight was only

introduced about the middle of that age. However, luxury increasing with riches, Marcus Scaurus, in his ædileship, exhibited one hundred and fifty tigers, five crocodiles, and an hippopotamus. But Pompey, on dedicating his theatre, exceeded all the shows hitherto given to the people. He presented four hundred and ten tigers, five hundred lions, a number of elephants, the lynx, the rhinoceros, and other large beasts, many of which were brought from Æthiopia. Julius Cæsar, when ædile, gave the people a combat of three hundred and twenty couple of gladiators: but, after he ended the civil war, he divided his hunting games so as to last five days. In these shows five hundred men on foot, and three hundred on horseback, were made to fight with twenty elephants, on whose backs turrets were placed, and defended by sixty men.

The huntings of wild beasts having become so magnificent, it was necessary to contrive a building where they might be performed more conveniently than in the circus. Because the length of the circus, proper for the chariot races, was improper for these combats; the distance, as well as elevation of the spina and metæ, rendering it difficult for the people to see. And, indeed, no form of building could be better calculated for such shows than an amphitheatre, which is two theatres joined together. Here the spectators, placed round a circle or oval, with nothing to interrupt their view, and secured from the danger of the wild beasts, could fully enjoy the sight of these favourite shows.

The amphitheatres at first were only temporary, and built of wood. The first built of stone was that erected in the Campus Martius by Statilius Taurus, in the time of Augustus; and which was probably constructed after the death of Vitruvius, since he takes no notice of such a building. But the most magnificent ever erected was this of Vespasian. Nor did Martial without reason assert, that the pyramids and mausoleums of Egypt ought to yield to it in grandeur. P. 332.

The work is enlarged by an Appendix, which contains, among other detached pieces, a narrative of an excursion to Tivoli, and accounts of Præneste, Albano, and Herculæum. The description of the last mentioned spot would more properly accompany an examination of the antiquities of Naples and its environs, than a work which bears the present title.

This production displays industry, accuracy, and taste; but it does not abound with originality of remark; and the author appears more as a *virtuoso* than as an elegant writer.

*Miscel-*

*Miscellanies ; or, Literary Recreations. By J. D'Israeli.*  
8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

MR. D'Israeli is already known to the lovers of literature, as one who makes a good deal of general reading subservient, not only to his own amusement, but to that of the public. The present volume consists of short unconnected essays, on a variety of subjects. They are not only unconnected with each other, but have, many of them, no leading thread of argument or regular train of thought which runs through the piece, giving it the character of a finished whole. The essays, except that the language is more studied, have rather the air of conversation amongst cultivated people, pursued not so much with a view to close discussion, as to deliver what may be said on any subject with brilliancy and point. In this they probably meet the taste of the public, to whom this kind of light reading is generally agreeable. The Preface is an essay; it turns upon the character of reviews and reviewers; most of the observations we acquiesce in: but when he blames a reviewer for saying what an author *is not*, with which he says the public has nothing to do, we must beg leave to distinguish. If an author wants qualities which are foreign to the nature of his work, and which he does not pretend to have, it would certainly be equally invidious, as unnecessary, to point out his deficiency; but if he wants those which from the very nature of his subject he ought to possess, it *does* then become necessary 'to enumerate what an author is not.'—'Sometimes we are informed,' (Mr. D'Israeli says) 'that an author is lively and ingenious, but not profound and learned.' If this were said of the dialogue of a comedy, the criticism would indeed be impertinent, because depth and learning do not enter into the nature of the work; but if it were said of a writer of controversy on important subjects, the remark would be proper, because a controversial writer ought to be profound and learned; and if he is not, it is fair matter of censure. Again, it may be said, without any censure, merely by way of distinction, of works which, like essays, may be either lively and ingenious, or profound and learned, according to the turn and talents of the author. It merely tells the reader what he has to expect. With regard to the impartiality which ought to be maintained by reviewers towards different parties, we entirely agree with him.

'It is one of the inconveniencies attached to literature, that, in contending times like the present, every ingenuous writer must inevitably offend the two vast divisions, in which we may now class the

the European public. As every thing in this world revolves in a circle, and our follies, and our errors, are dull repetitions of former follies, and former errors; this, also, was a complaint of that amiable literary character, Erasmus, who, in his stormy age of revolutions, tells us, that works of mere literature, were always confounded by the one party, as aids to Luther, or by the other, as servilities to the court of Rome. A writer on literary topics, is now placed on a sharp precipice between politics and religion; and the public reward of all his anxieties, and all his toils, consists in the mutual denunciations of two dishonest factions. Literary investigation is allied neither to politics nor religion; it is a science consecrated to the few; abstracted from all the factions on earth; and independent of popular discontents, and popular delusions. Men of letters, of all professions, are alone privileged to repeat the verses of a philosophic poet,

‘ ——— Nous y sommes  
Contemporains de tous les hommes,  
Et citoyens de tous les lieux.’ P. xx.

If we have dwelt long upon the Preface, it is in deference to the opinion of the author, who says, in a subsequent essay —

‘ It argues a deficiency of taste to turn over an elaborate preface unread; for it is the odour of the author’s roses; every drop distilled at an immense cost.’ P. 77.

The first essay is ‘on Miscellanies,’ of which mode of writing it is a panegyric, but it is *not* (Mr. D’Israeli will pardon us) very close or connected.

The second turns on the question (a question, on both sides of which much may be urged) whether the artist or the man of taste is the best judge of his labours. In this there are many just observations given in elegant language, though now and then too *recherché*, as in the following passage —

‘ The fever of envy will disorder the finest vision, and the chillness of personal dislike will freeze the faculties into a fatal torpor.’ P. 24.

Speaking of the partiality which an author naturally feels for his own manner, he has the following apology for Goldsmith, in which his excellencies are contrasted to those of Johnson, with much felicity of expression —

‘ Goldsmith might have preferred the felicity of his own genius, which like a native stream flowed from a natural source, to the elaborate powers of Johnson, which in some respect may be compared to those artificial waters which throw their sparkling currents in  
the

the air, to fall into marble basons. He might have considered that he had embellished philosophy with poetical elegance, and have preferred the paintings of his descriptions, to the terse verification and the pointed sentences of Johnson. He might have been more pleased with the faithful representations of English manners in his *Vicar of Wakefield*, than with the borrowed grandeur, and the exotic fancy of the oriental *Rasselas*. He might have believed, what many excellent critics have believed, that in this age comedy requires more genius than tragedy, and with his audience he might have infinitely more esteemed his own original humour, than Johnson's turgid declamation. He might have thought that with inferior literature he displayed superior genius, and with less profundity, more gaiety. He might have considered that the facility and vivacity of his pleasing compositions were preferable to that art, that habitual pomp, and that ostentatious eloquence which prevail in the operose labours of Johnson. No one might be more sensible than himself, that he, according to the happy expression of Johnson (when his rival was in the grave) "*religuit et ornavit.*" Goldsmith therefore without any singular vanity, might have concluded from his own reasonings, that he was not an inferior writer to Johnson; all this not having been considered, he has come down to posterity as the vainest and the most jealous of writers; he whose dispositions were the most inoffensive, whose benevolence was the most extensive, and whose amiableness of heart has been concealed by its artlessness, and passed over in the sarcasms and sneers of a more eloquent rival, and his submissive partizans.

P. 30.

Mr. D'Israeli concludes with deciding, that the most unfit person to decide on a performance is an artist himself; and that taste will appreciate works better than genius. The next, 'on Style,' shows off to advantage the writer's own. The next tells us, what is very true, 'that children read fables as histories, but the philosopher reads histories as fables.'

The next contains some strictures 'on Diaries and Self-biography,' with a singular instance of vanity in Cantenac, a French writer, in drawing his own character.

'The Character of Dennis the Critic' seems to be written with a certain degree of spleen, from the author's having been trying, as he tells us, to get through the works of Dennis, which he found (nor is it to be wondered at) a task beyond his patience. But of how many works may that be now said, which have attracted and indeed deserved the attention of their day!

The next essay contrasts 'Erudition and Philosophy,' in which he borrows the French word, an '*erudit*;' but it does not harmonise well with an English sentence. '*A man of erudition*' gives

gives sufficiently the sense of *un erudit*. 'Erudition' (Mr. D'Israeli says) 'is a rod in the hand of a Prideaux, and a sceptre in the hand of a Gibbon.' Notwithstanding this severe stricture, Prideaux will always be consulted where information is wanted. But our author is fond of the lighter works, as appears from the next, 'on Poetical Opuscula.' He thinks, and perhaps with justice, that the French excell us in elegant complimentary productions, and *vers de société*. Yet though we have not the name of the Madrigal, the Rondeau, and others of that species, we possess numbers of elegant pieces which, under the simple title of *copies of verses*, display great variety of thought and felicity of expression. Doddsley's Miscellanies alone would furnish a rich assortment.

'On the Enlightened Public, and the Age of Reason.'—  
'Of Licensers of the Press.'—'On Reading.'

The first of these exposes some romantic notions which modern philosophers have fallen into, of an improved state of the world.—The second contains some curious anecdotes of the bigotry and intolerance of past ages. We devoutly wish we may always have them to seek in past ages only.—The third contains many good practical rules for making our reading turn to the best account.

† Nor is it always necessary, in the pursuits of learning, to read every book entire. Perhaps this task has now become an impossibility, notwithstanding those ostentatious erudits, who, by their infinite and exact quotations, appear to have read and digested every thing; readers, artless and honest, have conceived from such writers, an illusive idea of the power and extensiveness of the human faculties. Of many books it is sufficient to seize the plan, and to examine some of its portions. The quackery of the learned, has been often exposed; and the art of quoting fifty books in a morning, is a task neither difficult nor tedious. There is a little supplement placed at the close of every volume, of which few readers conceive the utility; but some of the most eminent writers in Europe, have been great adepts in the art of index-reading. An index reader is, indeed, more let into the secrets of an author, than the other who attends him with all the tedious forms of ceremony; as those courtiers who pay their public devoirs at court, are less familiar with the minister, than the few who merely enter the chamber of audience, and who generally steal up the back stairs, and hold their secret consultations with the minister himself. I, for my part, venerate the inventor of indexes; and I know not to whom to yield the preference, either to Hippocrates, who was the first great anatomiser of the human body, or to that unknown labourer in literature, who first laid open the nerves and arteries of a book.

It

\* It may be unnecessary also, to read all the works of an author, but only to attach ourselves to those which have received the approbation of posterity. By this scheme we become acquainted with the finest compositions in half the time those employ, who, attempting to read every thing, are often little acquainted with, and even ignorant of the most interesting performances. Thus of Machiavel, it may be sufficient to read his Prince and his History of Florence; of Milton nearly all his poetry, little of his prose, and nothing of his history; of Fielding's twelve volumes, six may be sufficient; and of Voltaire's ninety, perhaps thirty may satisfy. Of lord Chesterfield's Letters, the third volume is the essential one, and concentrates the whole system. A reader is too often a prisoner attached to the triumphal car of an author of great celebrity, and when he ventures not to judge for himself, conceives, while he is reading the indifferent works of great authors, that the languor which he experiences, arises from his own defective taste. But the best writers, when they are voluminous, have a great deal of mediocrity; for whenever an author attains to a facility in composition, the success of his preceding labours, not only stimulate him to new performances, but prejudice the public in their favour; and it is often no short period before the public, or the author, are sensible of the mediocrity of the performances.

On the other side, readers must not imagine that all the pleasures of composition depend on the author; for there is something which a reader himself must bring to the book, that the book may please. There is a literary appetite which the author can no more impart, than the most skilful cook can give an appetency to the guests. When cardinal Richelieu said to Godeau, that he did not understand his verses, the honest poet replied, that it was not his fault. It would indeed be very unreasonable, when a painter exhibits his pictures in public, to expect that he should provide spectacles for the use of the short-sighted. Every man must come prepared as well as he can. Simonides confessed himself incapable of deceiving stupid persons; and Balzac remarked of the girls of his village, that they were too silly to be deceived by a man of wit. Dullness is impenetrable; and there are hours when the liveliest taste loses its sensibility. The temporary tone of the mind may be unfavourable to taste a work properly, and we have had many erroneous criticisms from great men, which may often be attributed to this circumstance. The mind communicates its infirm dispositions to the book, and an author has not only his own defects to account for, but also those of his reader. There is something in composition, like the game of shuttlecock, where, if the reader does not quickly rebound the feathered cork, to the author, the game is destroyed, and the whole spirit of the work falls extinct.

\* A frequent impediment in reading, is a disinclination in the mind,



mind, to settle on the subject; agitated by incongruous and dissimilar ideas, it is with pain that we admit those of the author. But it is certain, that if we once apply ourselves, with a gentle violence, to the perusal of an interesting work, the mind soon assimilates the subject; the disinclination is no more, and like Homer's chariot wheels, we kindle as we roll. The ancient rabbins, who passed their days in their madrasies or schools, and who certainly were great readers of their most voluminous Talmud, advised their young students to apply themselves to their readings, whether they felt an inclination or not, because, as they proceeded, they would find their disposition restored, and their curiosity awakened. Philosophy can easily account for this fact; it is so certain, and acts with such power, that even indifferent works are frequently finished, merely to gratify that curiosity which its early pages have communicated. The ravenous appetite of Johnson for reading, is expressed in a strong metaphor, by Mrs. Knowles, who said, "he knows how to read better than any one; he gets at the substance of a book directly; he tears out the heart of it," p. 194.

The two next have nothing particularly striking.

The three following tend to show that excellence neither depends on the influence of the climate, nor even on peculiar abilities, but is chiefly the result of industry and favouring circumstances. Much, no doubt, depends upon these; yet we can never subscribe to the following sentence—

‘Every man of common organisation has the power of becoming a man of genius, if to this be added a solitary devotion to art, and a vehement passion for glory.’ p. 254.

In a man of common organisation, we suspect that a *solitary devotion to his art* would only produce a pedant; and a *vehement passion for glory*, a coxcomb. Yet we think the common idea, that there are as many kinds of genius as there are modes of employing it,—a genius for poetry, another genius for painting, another for botany, &c.—a very erroneous one. Strong parts may probably be turned to any one of a great variety of pursuits, according as circumstances give the first impulse, or voluntary application compels the mind to follow a particular direction; but the man who wants those original powers, will be marked with the stamp of mediocrity, whatever he pursues, and whatever be his earnestness to excel.

The next points out the track of imitation in many of the most celebrated writers—

‘Our own early writers have got more originality than modern genius may aspire to reach. To imitate and to rival the Italians and the French formed their devotion. Chaucer, Gower, and

Gawin

Cawin Douglas, were all spirited imitators, and frequently only masterly translators. Spenser, the father of so many poets, is himself the child of the Ausonian Muse; in borrowing the fancy of the Italian poetry, he unhappily adopted its form. Shakespeare has liberally honoured many writers by unsparing imitations; he has availed himself of their sentiments, their style, and their incidents. His Oberon was taken from a French romance, and his Fairies are no more his own original invention, than the Sylphs are of Pope. Milton is incessantly borrowing from the poetry of his day. In the beautiful *Mask of Comus* he preserved all the circumstances of the work he imitated. The *Paradise Lost* is believed to have been conceived from a mystery, and many of its most striking passages are taken from other poets. Tasso opened for him the Tartarean gulph; the sublime description of the bridge may be found in Sadi, who borrowed it from the Turkish theology; the paradise of fools is a wild flower, transplanted from the wilderness of Ariosto. Jonson was the servile slave of his ancient masters; and the rich poetry of Gray is a wonderful tissue, woven on the frames, and composed with the gold threads of others. To Cervantes we owe Butler; and the united abilities of the three great wits, in their *Martinus Scriblerus*, could find no other mode of conveying their powers, but by imitating at once, Don Quixote and Monsieur Ousle. Pope, like Boileau, had all the ancients and moderns in his pay; the contributions he levied were not the pillages of a bandit, but the taxes of a monarch. Swift is much indebted for the plans of his two very original performances. The *Travels of Gulliver*, to the *Voyages of Cyrano de Bergerac*, to the Sun and Moon; a writer, who, without the acuteness of Swift, has wilder flashes of fancy. Dr. Warton has observed many of his strokes in bishop Godwin's *Man in the Moon*, who, in his turn, must have borrowed his work from Cyrano. The *Tale of a Tub* is an imitation of the once popular allegory of the three invisible rings which a father bequeathed his children, and which were the Jewish, Christian, and Mahomedan religions; as this tale is also of the history of Fontenelle's *Mero and Enegue*. (Rome and Geneve). Dr. Ferriar's *Essay on the Imitations of Sterne* might be considerably augmented; the Englishman may be tracked in many obscure paths; in such neglected volumes, as *Le Moyen de parvenir*, and the *Ana*; besides Burton and *Martinus Scriblerus*. Such are the writers, however, who imitate, but are inimitable!

We will now, quitting Britain, make a short excursion round the rest of Europe, and visit some of our neighbours, that we may not imagine they enjoy a superiority over our own fellow citizens. Montaigne, with honest naïveté, compares his writings to a thread that binds the flowers of others; and that by incessantly pouring the waters of a few good old authors into his sieve, some drops fall upon his paper. The good old man elsewhere acquaints us with a

certain stratagem of his own invention, consisting of his inserting whole sentences from the ancients, without acknowledgment, that the critics might blunder, by giving nazardes to Seneca and Plutarch, while they imagined they tweaked his nose. Petrarch, who is not the inventor of that tender poetry of which he is the model; and Boccaccio, called the father of Italian novels, have alike profited by a studious perusal of writers, who are now only read by those who have more curiosity than taste. Boiardo has imitated Pulci, and Ariosto, Boiardo. The madness of Orlando Furioso, though it wears, by its extravagance, a very original air, is only imitated from sir Launcelot in the old romance of *Mort Arthur*, with which the late Mr. Warton observes, it agrees in every leading circumstance; Tasso has imitated the *Iliad*, and enriched his poem with episodes from the *Eneid*. It is curious to observe, that even Dante, wild and original as he appears, when he meets Virgil in the *Inferno*, warmly expresses his gratitude for the many fine passages for which he was indebted to his works, and on which he says he had "long meditated." Moliere and La Fontaine are considered to possess as much originality as any of the French writers; yet the learned Menage calls Moliere "un grand et habile picoreur," and Boileau tells us, that La Fontaine borrowed his style and matter from Marot and Rabelais; and took his subjects from Boccaccio, Poggio, and Ariosto. Nor was the eccentric Rabelais the inventor of most of his burlesque narratives, and he is a very close imitator of Folengo, the inventor of the macaronic poetry, and not a little indebted to the old *Facezie* of the Italians. Indeed Marot, Villon, as well as those we have noticed, profited by the authors, anterior to the age of Francis I. Bruyere incorporates whole passages of Publius Syrus in his work, as the translator of the latter abundantly shews. To the Turkish Spy was Montesquieu beholden for his Persian Letters, and a numerous croud are indebted to Montesquieu. Corneille made a liberal use of Spanish literature; and the pure waters of Racine flowed from the fountains of Sophocles and Euripides.' P. 315.

In the essay 'on the Influence of Women,' Mr. D'Israeli falls into a fault not uncommon with authors;—the speaking of the *fair* (as they are quaintly called), and every thing relating to them, with a certain degree of affectation. It is, besides, very trite; and the following observation is as remote from decency as it is from argument—

'That peculiar animation which vivifies their lively perceptions; has been considered as something supernatural, and we can easily conceive that the afflatus of prophecy must ever have displayed a more touching illusion in the agitated and picturesque countenance of a woman, than in the more hard and labouring visage of a prophet; I conceive that the Grecian Pythia, the Roman Sibyl, and the

the Pythonissa of the Hebrews, must have communicated a more celestial inspiration with their copious tresses, luxuriating on their palpitating bosom, their vivacious eyes, and their snowy arms, than even a passionate Isaiah, or a weeping Jeremiah.' p. 345.

Nor is the succeeding essay 'on the Alliance between Love and Religion,' free from strokes which show much grossness of imagination; for what else could lead the author to censure the really beautiful sentiment of Catharine, the Romish saint, when she exclaimed, 'how unhappy must the damned be, since they are deprived of the pleasure of *loving*!' as if by that term she meant to refer to the sensual pleasures of a Mahometan paradise?

A comparison of 'French and English Poetry' forms the last essay.

The chief thing Mr. D'Israeli has studied in these essays, is evidently style. This is brilliant, sparkling, and evinces an elegant taste for literary composition; but the *limæ labor* is too apparent; and we are often disgusted by affected words and phrases, such as *the amatorial passion* — *to domiciliate a foreign idiom* — *the exility of an object* — *evanescencies* — *to variegate with variety* — *orgasm* — *to feast the appetency of the mind* — *to employ an ornament artistly* — *we scarce glance at the glittering of a star, but we gaze with delight on the coruscations of a meteor.* — Sometimes, where his expressions are more happily chosen, although they do not possess the charm of simplicity, yet they are not devoid of a certain degree of beauty; as, *these writers solicit the ear by a numerous prose, and expand their ideas on a glittering surface.*

'It is the pleasing labour of genius to amplify into vastness, to colour into beauty, and to arrange the objects which occupy his meditations, with a secret artifice of disposition.' p. 61.

Of the observations themselves, enough has been quoted, to give the reader an opportunity of forming his own opinion, with regard to the degree of depth or originality to which they may lay claim.

*Discourses on the Providence and Government of God. By Newcome Cappe. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1795.*

WE have received much pleasure from the perusal of these discourses. The author entertains a just and serious sense of the attributes of God, which he explains in an interesting manner. At the beginning of the work is an analysis of

of the contents, from which our readers may see what is to be expected in the perusal of them.

### DISCOURSE I.

‘ The ordinary as well as the extraordinary events of life proceed from God — Important practical uses of this belief — The doctrine contained in the text, (“ Who is he that saith, and it cometh to pass, when the Lord commandeth it not ?”) may be understood either as relating to all the operations of God, or, in a more limited acceptation, as relating to extraordinary instances of his interposition — State of the prophet’s mind in reflecting on the calamities of his country — The advantage of faith founded on just principles — Consolations to be derived from it — View of the doctrine as deducible from the text —

- ‘ 1. In its more limited,
- ‘ 2. In its universal acceptation.

### DISCOURSE II.

‘ 1. To foreknow and to foretell futurities is the peculiar characteristic of divinity — Of the knowledge requisite in order to prophecy — Such perfection of knowledge only in God.

‘ 2. Every prophet as such is entitled to respect, and every religion supported by prophecy is divine.

‘ No reasonableness, or excellence of any doctrine, a conclusive argument of divine inspiration, if not supported by miracles performed, or prophecies fulfilled — Peculiarity in the circumstances of the Jewish prophets — Wisdom of that peculiarity — No credit to be derived from it by pretenders to prophecy, under any other dispensation — Ample proof of the truth of christianity, both from miracles and prophecy — No doctrine, therefore, or institution, deserving of credit, but so far as they concur with the gospel of Christ — Our obligations to obey its injunctions — Admonitions so to do — Its importance in life, and in death.

### DISCOURSE III.

‘ General design of the ensuing discourses —

‘ I. To give some idea of the government of God with respect both to its nature and its extent.

‘ II. To state some of the reasons by which this doctrine is supported.

‘ III. To inquire what influence it ought to have upon our temper and our conduct.

‘ What is meant by the providence of God — What that doctrine affirms, and what it denies — That this government of God extends to all — To animate, inanimate, sensible, intelligent and moral beings — In what manner it extends to them.’ p. ix.

‘ The first general head affords matter for part of the third,  
for

for the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh discourses. The observations on the second general head are contained in the eighth, ninth, and tenth discourses. The remaining discourses are dedicated to the third general head; and many practical lessons are given with great earnestness. The last discourse deserves general attention in an age like this, when there seems to be no medium, and persons are apt to run into the extremes of either fanaticism or indifference.

‘ If without God nothing comes to pass, most important to maintain and cultivate the spirit of devotion.

‘ What is meant by the spirit of devotion.

‘ The interesting point of view in which the truly devout see the various phenomena of nature.— Effects upon such a mind of prosperity or adversity — Of the kindness of others — Happiness of such a temper — Its conformity to the doctrine of God’s universal empire — Suitableness and propriety of it — Worldliness and dissipation enemies to its growth — Deduction thence — The spirit of devotion needs to be tended and cultivated — Youth the best season for the acquisition of it — Exhortation to the young — Danger from the prejudices, customs, and manners of the world — What would, in time, be the effect of these, even where contrary habits are formed — Miserable state of indevout old age — Pleasures of true devotion.’ p. xix.

This mode of analysing discourses will be useful in all families which retain the excellent custom of devoting some part of the Sunday to domestic instruction. From want of interesting the judgment, the reading of the sermon is considered as an *opus operatum*; and no inquiry is made whether any knowledge has been derived to the hearers from the performance of this office. We should recommend, therefore, to the father of the family to read over two or three times the analysis of the discourse, so as to understand it thoroughly by himself: he should read it then to the family, and suggest some useful hints from himself; and in the course of reading he might point out where the respective parts of the analysis come in. At the conclusion of the discourse he might read the analysis again, which would now afford some useful matter of inquiry: and if he conducts this part of his office with temper and seriousness, he will not only perceive whether his hearers have understood him or not, but may put them in the way of deriving considerable advantage from such an exercise. The discourse should then be left in the kitchen for the ensuing week, that any of the servants at their leisure might review their last Sunday’s meditations. These sermons, thus read twice over, in the course of the year, will excite matter for the best reflections in the family: and if the younger clergy

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would read them over in the same manner, compare the analysis with the discourse, confide the general contents to memory, and after a sufficient time make them the subject of a Sunday's discourse, and pen down their own thoughts, they would find the benefit in the greater interest which their hearers would take in such compositions.

*Letters written during a short Residence in Spain and Portugal, by Robert Southey. With some Account of Spanish and Portuguese Poetry. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.*

**M**R. Southey, already known to the literary world by the early brilliancy of his poetic genius, in this volume appears before the public in the character of a tourist, not however quitting entirely that of a poet, since his letters are interspersed with many translations from the Spanish and Portuguese, and prefaced by a pleasing copy of verses, entitled *Retropective Musings*. Mr. Southey landed at Corunna, and travelled through the wild scenery of Galicia and Leon to the plains of Madrid, where he stayed a few days; from thence he proceeded through Truxillo, Merida, Badajos, &c. to Lisbon. His manner of writing is lively and entertaining: and though the volume before us must yield, in point of information, to the fuller accounts given us of these countries by travellers who have resided in them longer and seen more; it bears every where the marks of a sensible and acute mind, alive to the best interests of mankind; and the author's taste and love of literature have given it a variety not always found in works of this nature. A good part of our author's time was necessarily spent in inns, the dirt and disagreeableness of which are the object of much lively satire. Indeed the masses of both Spaniards and Portuguese seem to be still plunged in the most deplorable ignorance, and far from enjoying the common comforts of civilised life. *No innovation* is their motto. As a specimen—

‘ We proceeded two leagues further to Griteru, over a country of rocks, mountains, and swamps. The Venta there exceeded all my conceptions of possible wretchedness. The kitchen had no light but what came through the apertures of the roof or the adjoining stable. A wood fire was in the middle, and the smoke found its way out how it could, of course the rafters and walls were covered with soot. The furniture consisted of two benches and a bed, I forbear to say how clean. The inhabitants of the stable were a mule and a cow; of the kitchen, a miserable meagre cat, a woman, and two pigs, who were as familiar as a young lady's lap dog. I never saw a human being disfigured by such filth and squalidness as the  
woman;

woman; but she was anxious to accommodate us, and we were pleased by her attempt to please us. We had brought an undrest rump of beef from Coruna, and fried some flakes ourselves; and as you may suppose, after having travelled twenty miles, at the rate of three miles an hour, almost breakfastless, we found the dinner excellent. I even begin to like the wine, so soon does habit reconcile us to any thing. Florida Blanca has erected a very good house at this place, designed for a posada, but nobody will tenant it! The people here live in the same sty with their swine, and seem to have learnt their obstinacy as well as their filth.' P. 36.

The inconveniences travellers are exposed to when the king of Spain takes it into his head to travel, are thus described—

'We entered upon the new road before we reached the village of Labajos. Here we have received the pleasant intelligence that the royal family are going to Seville, and that the Portugeze court are to meet them on the frontiers.

'You will wonder what difference their movements can possibly make to us; for in England, if his majesty passes you on the road, you say—"There goes the king," and there's an end of it; but here, when the court think proper to move, all carriages, carts, mules, horses and asses are immediately *embargoed*. Thank God, in an Englishman's dictionary you can find no explanation of that word.

'Know then, that during this *embargo*, all conveyances may be seized for the king's use, at a fixed price, which price is below the common charge; and if any of the king's court, or the king's cooks, or the king's scullions, want a carriage, and were to find us upon the road, they might take our's and leave us with our baggage in the high way; at a time when we could procure no vehicle, no beasts, no house room, and even no food; for the multitudes that follow the king fill all the houses and devour all the provisions.' P. 101.

Again—

'The king set off on Monday last; his retinue on this journey consists of seven thousand persons! and so vain is his Most Catholic majesty of this parade, that he has actually had a list of his attendants printed on a paper larger than any map or chart you ever saw, and given to all the grandees in favour. We were in hopes of securing a carriage through the marquis Yrandas's interest. This nobleman during the war was in disgrace, but when pacific principles gained the ascendancy at court, he was recalled from a kind of banishment at his country seat, and sent to negotiate the peace, which was afterwards concluded by Yriarte, a brother of the poet, since dead. The intelligence he gives us is very unfavourable to men who are in haste. The court will not be less than fifteen days

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on the road with us; no interest can secure us a carriage; and if we can get one to set out, it will probably be taken from us on the way by some of their retinue; and there is no accommodation at the posadas, for, independent of the common attendants, six hundred people of rank were obliged to lie in the open air the first night; nor can we go a different road without doubling the distance; for were we to attempt to enter Portugal by Ciudad Rodrigo, and the province of *Tras os Montes*, if the rains which are daily expected should overtake us, the mountain torrents would be impassable.

'His majesty's title to the crown of Corsica has been virtually acknowledged here in a singular manner. A Corsican, in some trifling quarrel concerning a plate at dinner, stabbed a man on Sunday last, and took shelter in the house of the English ambassador. These things are common here: I never passed through a village without seeing three or four monumental crosses in it; and as it can hardly be supposed that a banditti would attack in an inhabited place, it is fair to conclude that these monuments are for men who have been stabbed in some private quarrel. Their long knives are very convenient. Detection is easily avoided in this country, and conscience soon quieted by the lullaby of absolution!

'The old palace of *Buen Retiro* is converted into a royal porcelain manufactory; the prices are extravagantly high, but they have arrived to great excellence in the manufacture. The false taste of the people is displayed in all the vases I saw there, which, though made from Roman models, are all terminated by porcelain flowers! In the gardens of his majesty, who is a great sportsman, occasionally shoots, and high scaffolds are erected in different parts for his markers to stand upon: here also he amuses himself with a royal recreation similar to what boys call *Randy* in England; he is said to play very well, but as this august personage is ambitious of fame, he is apt to be very angry if he is beaten. Did you ever see two boys try which could bring the other on his knees by banding his fingers back? The king of Spain is very fond of this amusement, for he is remarkably strong: a little time ago there was a Frenchman in great favour with him, because he had strength enough to equal his majesty in all these sports, and sense enough to yield to him. One day when they were thus employing themselves, the king fancied his antagonist did not exert all his force; and as his pride was hurt, insisted upon it in such a manner that the Frenchman was obliged to be in earnest, and brought him to the ground. The king immediately struck him in the face.' P. 116.

Again —

'The wild boars who inhabit this forest, and the tame swine who are admitted there to board and lodging, have not injured it: even the monks appear to respect its age and beauty, and satisfied with regularly stripping the bark, suffer the old trees to remain venerably

nerably picturesque. But we are now following the court closely, and never did I witness a more melancholy scene of devastation! his Most Catholic majesty travels like the king of the gypsies: his retinue strip the country, without paying for any thing, sleep in the woods, and burn down the trees. We found many of them yet burning: the hollow of a fine old cork-tree served as a fire-place. The neighbouring trees were destroyed for fuel, and were a brisk wind even now to spring up, the forest might be in flames. Mules, and horses, and asses lie dead along the road, and though they do not cry aloud in our ears against the barbarity of thus destroying them by excessive fatigue, yet they address themselves strongly to another sense. The king is fond of inscriptions. Not a ditch along the road has been bridged without an inscription beginning, "*Reinando Carlos IV.*" I feel very much inclined to indulge in a placard upon one of the mutilated old trees. His majesty's travelling exploits would have furnished an excellent inscription for such a monument of his journey.' p. 201.

The following dialogue affords a curious specimen at once of the poetry and theology of the Spaniards —

DIALOGUE

\* Between an Athenian Philosopher, and a Christian Theologian.

\* *Phil.* In truth, good sir! I am surprised  
At what you say to me;  
We never heard at Athens of  
Your university.  
I am a student as you know  
Of the Athenian schools,  
Attentive to their doctrines, and  
Obedient to their rules.  
Our studies there are numerous,  
Our knowledge is not small,  
And yet of your theology  
We never heard at all.

\* *Theol.* Your Athens is a place renown'd  
For philosophic knowledge,  
But no such heathen lore as that  
Is studied in our college.  
Your colleges are all profane,  
Our college is divine,  
To speak to men is taught in yours,  
To speak to God in mine.

\* *Phil.* Some very great professor then  
Of languages you boast?

- ‘ *Theol.* The greatest teacher in the world,  
By name The Holy Ghost.
- ‘ *Phil.* Pray has he many pupils there?
- ‘ *Theol.* Twelve scholars apt and good;  
So learned — that by all the world  
Each one is understood.
- ‘ *Phil.* And is the course of study long?
- ‘ *Theol.* So little is there in it,  
That tho’ they every language speak  
They learnt them in a minute.
- ‘ *Phil.* Pray are your college commons good?  
How is it that you dine?
- ‘ *Theol.* No fare on earth can equal it,  
We have such bread and wine!  
Could you but taste this wondrous fare,  
You’d credit all I told ye,  
Your wine would taste like vinegar,  
And all your bread seem mouldy.
- ‘ *Phil.* Our commons must be better then,  
If I have not mistook.
- ‘ *Theol.* Your viands may be costly, but  
The devil is your cook.
- ‘ *Phil.* Who governs your fraternity,  
The master or the rector?
- ‘ *Theol.* The one is chief, the other is  
Our head and our inspector;  
The master is omnipotent.
- ‘ *Phil.* Since he is of such fame,  
I pray you now his title tell,
- ‘ *Theol.* Don Christ of the Cross is his name.
- ‘ *Phil.* Don Christ of the Cross! the name to me  
Was hitherto unknown.  
Pray was Don Christ a gentleman?
- ‘ *Theol.* God Almighty’s only son.
- ‘ *Phil.* You say the rector is your head,  
Pray what may his name be?
- ‘ *Theol.* Doctor Saint Peter.
- ‘ *Phil.* Is he one  
Of noble family?
- ‘ *Theol.*

‘*Theol.* He was a fisherman whom God  
Has called to this high state;  
But time it is on all these things  
That you should contemplate.  
And when upon the matter well  
You shall have contemplated,  
Then to the college come with me  
And be matriculated.’ p. 215.

Among other literary curiosities, we meet with a Portuguese epic poem, which Mr. Southey has analysed, written on the marriage of Charles the Second of England to the princess Catharine of Portugal, and his consequent conversion to the Catholic faith. This poem, of which an English king is the hero, has probably never been heard of before by any Englishman. Lopez de Vega is well known by name in this country; our author gives a detailed account, with extracts, of his *Angelica*, an epic poem, in which he has endeavoured to rival Ariosto, but with little success. Mr. Southey adds—

‘I have looked into his *Dragontea*, but found no inducement to see sir Francis Drake butchered with such clumsy barbarity. I began his *Arcadia*, but though my perseverance has subdued the folios of *Parthenissa*, *Cassandra*, and *Cleopatra*, and even toiled through the prolix stupidity of *Clelia*, I was not able to persevere through the little volume of Lope de Vega’s pastoral prose.

‘In his smaller pieces, however, he is generally tolerable and sometimes excellent. When he had found a good thought for a sonnet, the nature of that composition prevented him from spoiling it. Though his Pegasus could not accomplish a long journey, he carried his master easily enough on an evening ride.’ p. 166.

The present reign, it seems, in Portugal, produced two epic poems. An extract from one of them, the *Caramura*, has great strength; but on the whole, literature is at a low ebb in both countries; and of their morality the following story may serve to give an idea—

‘An English wine-merchant in this country, whose cellars were under the chapel of a nunnery, discovered that some person was in the habit of entering them by night, and accordingly changed the lock. On the next day he received a note to this purport, “If you sustain any loss in your cellar, you shall be amply recompensed; but replace the old lock, or be assured you will repent it.” He understood the note, and followed the advice. The roof of the cellar was formed only of planks laid over the beams, and one of these was loose.’ p. 503.

Our readers will by this time be disposed to thank Mr. Southey for the entertainment he has given them: to which sentiment

we with pleasure accede ; observing, however, that the book might have been compressed, and that the poem quoted from poor Quarles is quite a *hors-d'œuvre*.

*A Complete System of Pleading: comprehending the most approved Precedents and Forms of Practice; chiefly consisting of such as have never before been printed: with an Index to the principal Work, incorporating and making it a Continuation of Townshend's and Cornwall's Tables, to the present Time; as well as an Index of Reference to all the Ancient and Modern Entries extant. By John Wentworth, Esq. of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law. Vol. I. containing Abatement, — Account, — Assumpsit. — Vol. II. containing Assumpsit Special. 8vo. 11. 4s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.*

THE technical formality and the prolixity of special pleading have occasioned no small degree of ridicule and reproach to the profession of the law. It is certainly true that a client's costs are too often swelled by the expense of voluminous declarations, pleas, demurrers, &c. and that even Justice herself has sometimes been entrapped in the legal cobwebs fabricated under her auspices. Still, however, special pleading is entitled to scientific rank : — a great luminary (the late Sir William Jones) has justly pronounced its rules to be founded on the most exquisite logic ; and those rules, when applied by a sagacious pleader, for the fair purposes of legal precision, have the unquestionable utility of disentangling multiplied facts, of discriminating their variety, and of reducing the chaotic mass of a complicated cause, to simple and perceptible grounds of litigation.

These are obvious juridical advantages : but if they were not at all connected with the labours of the special pleader, it would yet be of considerable importance to the junior members of the legal profession, to be acquainted with the forms and principles of an art so practically and intimately blended with the proceedings of courts of justice.

To this purpose the present compilation is directed : and Mr. Wentworth thus unfolds the plan of his work, in a short address ' to the profession ' —

' I am now able to present to the profession the first volume of my System of Pleading in octavo, which, pursuing my favourite plan, contains Abatement, Account, and part of Assumpsit ; together with the particular analysis of the pleas in abatement and of the action of account, as I intend at the end of every complete head or heads, when completed in each succeeding volume. These I name the heads, or leading titles ; for the heads of proceedings by

and against attorneys, &c. are subdivisions arising out of the general heads.

‘ The next head in the plan, namely, Annuity, may seem to be an exception ; but this head, by reference to the index, will be observed to be postponed to the pleadings under the head Writ of Annuity — Proceedings in, in order to connect the old proceedings, such as writ of annuity, writ of right, &c. : yet Annuity will preserve its former place if it follows personal and mixed actions, and immediately precede writs of right, &c. which are real actions, without injury to the analysis.

‘ In the pleas of abatement, considering it a very important plea, I have thought proper to give the utmost variety, notwithstanding I know there are many in the books ; I mean the Ancient Entries chiefly ; for I have not found so many in books of precedents of later date. And if the finished pleader and experienced professor should think the forms too similar or multifarious, still, by narrowly inspecting them, differences will be discovered in each both useful and instructive to the unexperienced practitioner. Keeping in view the practical use of my work, I have promised and do mean to give the greatest possible variety of precedents and forms in pleadings.

‘ In Account I have given few forms of pleadings, necessarily from the disuse of this (though a most beneficial) action : there are, however, more in the present volume than in any other book extant, with complete references to all the Modern and Ancient Entries.

‘ But on the more important action of Assumpsit, in every day's constant use, I have bestowed more pains at least than any other gentleman in practice in the profession has leisure to do. And I wish it to be considered, that without attending to the distinctions between Assumpsit general and special, I have adopted a mode which I think the most useful ; that is, throughout this action I have classed such as I think bear a relation to each other : for instance, in the second volume, in Assumpsit—Special Contracts, respecting real property, by and against landlord and tenant, I have taken care to give the precedents immediately afterwards on contracts relating to personal property, namely, the sale, assignment, demise, &c. of lands, houses, &c. because they have relation to each other ; and so in like manner on contracts, relating to sale, &c. carriage and conveyance of goods, &c. I have given those against carriers by land and water, &c. &c. as they respect the doctrine of bailments, &c. ; an arrangement which I have studiously adopted, that the student and pleader may with his eye immediately catch the subject and form together. In the alphabetical manner in which the majority of pleaders arrange their pleadings, I have seldom seen this analytical order relating to the subject,

‘ This

‘ This order, however, may not seem to be observed in the division preceding, viz. Assumpsit General : but I have adopted what I cannot help thinking a more truly useful mode there. For instance, in actions by and against particular persons, the most general subdivision of that division on the right page of the sheet, I have constantly led the eye at the top to the subject-matter or title (if I may call it so) of the precedent.

‘ The reason why I have not critically distinguished the precedents in Indebitatus Assumpsit from Assumpsit Special, is, because I do not think it so well defined or determined in the books ; but chiefly, because I think my method the most natural and easy for the professor and the student. I will give one instance : in my work, under this head, it is solemnly determined that assumpsit will not lie for a legacy, which if it did, would be indebitatus assumpsit ; but assumpsit special will lie on the promise by the executor ; and yet the precedents are in the same form. I have given two forms with the leading cases, and referred to the very able arguments of Mr. Justice Buller and my lord Kenyon. The profession will best judge of the usefulness of them.

‘ I have, however, violated the method in one instance, namely, Policies of Assurance, which are contracts of indemnity, and would more naturally fall under that subdivision ; but, never departing from real utility for a fastidious adherence to strictness of method, I have purposely classed bills of exchange, promissory notes, and policies of assurance, relating to trade, together under Assumpsit General ; and in one instance, for this reason only, have given one precedent of a policy of assurance against fire, though it is in Covenant, and ought to come under that head ; yet in the index the same precedent is to be found under its proper head Covenant — on Policies of Assurance.

‘ There are some precedents that are not strictly reducible to any of those heads which I have considered most useful as subdivisions, and where I have not been able to class the considerations of the contract, from their anomalous and special nature. These I have thrown together under that sort of head with the title at the top of the page as in Assumpsit General ; ex. gr. on charter parties of affreightment, &c. whereas covenant or debt is the ordinary action. These and other instances will present themselves to the pleader readily.

‘ Next follow the pleas, replications, &c. in assumpsit. The subdivisions arising out of this head, namely, proceedings by and against particular persons ; — attorneys, by and against, in every species of action ; — baron and feme, — executors and administrators, &c. &c. ; — forms of beginning and ending every declaration or plea ; — the judgment in abatement, — account, — assumpsit, and in every other action ; all follow in their proper place and natural order, either in the body of the work, if they form a distinct pre-

cedent,

cedent, however minute, or in the index. For example, for the beginning and ending of a plea in abatement, (which indeed form the plea itself), see Forms. In like manner, for beginnings and endings of declarations in assumpsit in every possible way, see Beginnings and Endings of Declarations under that head. These and other practical directions I may occasionally give, are to be observed throughout the work.

‘ The common declarations in indebitatus assumpsit, and the common counts, are so familiar to every attorney’s clerk, and so easy to be found in every book of practice, that I had contented myself with referring to them in the index, as they are to be found dispersedly throughout Assumpsit: however, after having put my work to the press, at the instance of many of my younger friends in the profession, I have given at the end of Assumpsit one complete form of every common declaration on all the common counts. And therefore here I cannot too frequently and too earnestly request the student’s attention, to the index. Here the difficulty which has been and will be previously regarded as to the facility of turning to precedents and forms in the body of the work, vanishes. Here every precedent and every form is so distributed, first by the analysis, and then by the references following each separate head, as to leave it impossible for a person of the plainest intellect not to find what he wants: all fall into their strictly natural place, and make this hitherto difficult doctrine of pleading capable of an easy comprehension, as well as prepare the pupil to read his law books, especially in this branch of that science — to digest his reading, and improve his faculties.

‘ I have taken all the books of practice of modern times, with the reporters, and have chronologically indexed all the forms and precedents whenever they have occurred in them: these, with my own work, form the modern part of my index. I have next taken the Modern Entries, with Cornwall and Townshend’s Tables, and thrown the antique mass into my own distribution: this forms the index to the Ancient Entries.’ p. iii.

Though we doubt whether Mr. Wentworth’s work be not planned on too extensive a scale, we have thought it no more than liberal to give the whole general analysis of an undertaking that has hitherto been attempted by no other person. We believe it is not customary for the profession to set a great value on *printed* precedents, which, like the divulged forms of the old Roman lawyers, may perhaps only drive the practitioner to invent *new subtleties*: — we do not, however, see any rational objection to the promulgation and common use of such precedents among the profession; and we are tolerably certain that the art of special pleading is not so engaging as to attract any other than those persons by whom it is necessary



fary to be understood and practised in the course of business. Two volumes of Mr. Wentworth's 'System' have already appeared: and we hope he will be able to complete his design, without rendering the collection repulsively voluminous. We think that the 'Index,' comprising the 'Ancient and Modern Entries,' will prove by far the most useful part of the work, which, in the specimens already published, appears to be performed with much industry and accuracy. — Notwithstanding the apology in the extract we have given, it is our opinion that by more scrupulous selection, Mr. Wentworth might render his materials less bulky, and, at the same time, fully preserve the utility of his plan. We cannot help also observing that the *distas*, or opinions, which accompany many of the precedents, ought not, in point of delicacy, to be printed, as they are rather to be considered as *notes* and *memorandums* from pleaders to their clients, than as *answers* solemnly and responsibly given to *cases* stated for the purpose.

*A Series of Poems, containing the Complaints, Consolations, and Delights of Achmed Ardebeili, a Persian Exile. With Notes Historical and Explanatory. By Charles Fox. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.*

IT is somewhat strange that this poetical Persian exile, so numerous too in his effusions, and so highly appreciated by his translator, should (in the language of Newgate history) furnish not a tittle relative to his *birth, parentage, and education*. The names of Jamie, Ferdusi, Hafez, Saadi, &c. are familiar to our ear; but as for ACHMED ARDEBEILI, we most frankly confess that we never enjoyed the honour of his acquaintance, or ever heard the sound of his name. To come a little closer to the point, we strongly suspect the *fancy's coinage* in this affair, and that he is, *bona fide*, the offspring of a Bristol brain, instead of a province of Persia. The ignorance of the Asiatic *costume*, which makes so frequent an appearance, united to a number of borrowed passages from our English poets, too strongly confirms our suspicions. If intended as a deception, the matter has been awkwardly managed. How easy to have made him a native of Tauris, Shiraz, or Isfahan, and given a sort of colour to the imposition! A trifle of imagination would have depicted his character, put him on his travels, and created his literary pursuits. Should we be wrong in our supposition of a deception, we hope that the translator will most candidly *undeceive* us in a future edition of the poems, and favour the world with a more satisfactory account of this extraordinary writer, who,

who, to form a poetical wreath, has made so very free with the flowers of our British Parnassus.

As every author, legitimate or spurious, becomes equally an object of our critical animadversions, we shall, with equal impartiality, deliver our opinions.

The versification is in general easy, the imagery sometimes bold and animated, the sentiments tender; and what is not the most inconsiderable merit of the poems, they frequently exhibit a vein of religion and morality. We shall select a few specimens from this collection of poems, that will impress our readers with a favourable opinion of their merits.

‘ TO AZRAEL, THE ANGEL OF DEATH.

‘ What’s life? what’s death? Fate’s sunshine or it’s gloom?  
And what th’ alternate gift that each bestows?  
A glittering bubble, or a silent tomb,  
A giddy whirlwind, or a calm repose.

‘ Amid the agitating storm, too long  
My wearied soul has felt the direful blast:  
Now, Death, to thee I pour my pensive song,  
And claim from thee a tranquil hour at last.

‘ Yes, mighty Azrael! I with transport view:  
Thy pale-wing’d messengers before thee fly:  
Soon shall my grateful heart declare anew,  
How pleasing to the wretched ’tis to die.

‘ Such is the bliss from adverse fate that springs,  
Thou beamst all-radiant on my closing hour:  
I mount from earth, O Azrael! on thy wings,  
And rapturous enter Ruzvan’s happy bower.

‘ While Fortune’s sons, and Pleasure’s giddy train,  
Start from their revels at thy sudden call;  
And as they seek some sheltering shield in vain,  
Their vital flame is quench’d in viper’s gall.

‘ How dire a fate life’s blessings to forego!  
But, ah! how sweet to quit a world of woe.’ P. 139.

The poem called the *Turtle Doves* possesses pathos, interest, and strength.

‘ Here, Achmed, let thy wearied frame once more  
Enjoy the heavenly comforts of repose:  
And may this much-lov’d solitude restore  
Thy mind to calmness, long oppress’d with woe.

‘ Unmanly ruler of the Persian land,  
A land of slaves, that abjectly obey;

This

This lonely region owns not thy command,  
Here, Achmed bends to no proud tyrant's sway.

But blest with what primeval Nature gave  
To all that live — the right to rest, or roam;  
For God ne'er form'd a tyrant, or a slave,  
Nor chain'd mankind to any hateful home.

Free as the light the man of Nature rose,  
Gazed on her beauties, and with raptured heart  
Adored the guardian of his sweet repose,  
Who bade the sun his genial powers impart.

He saw a charm diffused on all around;  
His soul responsive, felt that charm her own;  
His every thought with rosy chaplets crown'd,  
And pure emotions blest his heart alone.

How different far the man of modern days  
In vigorous health, and energy of mind;  
Ev'n in maturity his strength decays,  
His spirit daunted — wavering and confined.

He acts not, speaks not, as he thinks or feels,  
But ruled by interest, or by custom led,  
Awed by false shame or fear, his chariot wheels  
Pursue the track from which lost Reason fled.

The forcerefs, Superstition, waves her wand,  
And blasts the face of Nature to his view;  
While Usurpation grasps with griffon hand  
His scanty joys, his wealth, his freedom too.

Man taught alas! Delusion's voice to hear,  
And lur'd from Peace, to Cruelty and Strife,  
Led by Ambition, meets the slaughtering spear,  
Or lifts the sabre 'gainst his brother's life.

Perhaps he falls: — the vulture screams delight,  
Hovering impatient o'er the carnaged plain:  
Perhaps — he triumphs in the field of fight,  
A gory demon! 'midst the mangled slain.

Behold the neighbouring city, whose full fate  
Hung on the chance of victory or defeat:  
Lo! its high towers o'erturned — its wealth, its state,  
Laid like their sovereign at the conqueror's feet.

The virgin's shriek — the widow's frantic tear,  
The bitter anguish of a parent's love,  
Anticipating all the lot severe,  
That his poor captive offspring soon must prove.

- The chain that binds so cruelly their hands,  
Binds them more firmly to his anguish'd soul :  
Yet, see ! the iron-hearted warrior stands  
Exulting in the power of rude controul.
- The smoking ruin — the once lucid stream,  
Whose trembling waters flow disdain'd with blood ; —  
His dying sociate's pangs, — awake no gleam  
Of social feeling : Vengeance yells for food.
- Nor yells in vain : impetuous as the steed  
That hears the shout of war with neighing joy :  
While groans of Death to Terror's scream succeed,  
Aloud the son of Discord cries, destroy !
- Admit — the sultan whom his sword defends,  
Yields him a scanty portion of the spoils ;  
Rapine and Murder still his hope extends,  
With brutal revelry to crown his toils.
- He lives a tyger ! If his hated name  
Debase the annals of th' historic page,  
Indignant Justice 'mid the sons of Fame,  
Shall blast his memory — to each future age.
- But hark ! a gentler voice salutes mine ear,  
With softly murmuring notes of joy and love ;  
A voice that long has breathed familiar here,  
The placid spirit of the turtle dove.
- Sweet birds ! that nestling in the clefted stone,  
Where the wild creeper forms a floating shade ;  
Ne'er may that discord to your lives unknown,  
These sweetly-pensive solitudes invade.
- Welcome — thrice welcome, then, my hallow'd fate,  
And ah ! farewell ! thou world of cares and strife :  
Wean'd from thy love, and heedless of thy hate,  
Heaven yields me comfort, and sustains my life.' P. 100.

In some of the poems of this collection, there is an affection of grief, which too strongly marks the elegiac poetry of the present day : — nor do we recollect an æra when the tribe of whiners was more numerous : — almost every votary of Parnassus pays his vows to the *Muse of Tears* — he takes out his white handkerchief, sits himself down to cry, but with so little art, as to put us in mind of a howl at an Irish burial. *Si vis me flere*, &c. is a just maxim of Horace ; but how many complain, that never felt ! — unnatural inversion, pompous diction, remote allusion, and tinsel epithets, betray a total absence of sensibility.

The genuine passion disdains all meretricious ornament ; its characteristic features are energy and simplicity.

*Medical Cases and Speculations; including Parts IV. and V. & of Considerations on the Medicinal Powers, and the Production of Effluviations Airs. By Thomas Beddoes, M. D. and James Watt, Engineer. 8vo. 5s. Sewed. Johnson. 1796.*

**W**HATEVER difference of opinion may prevail respecting the advantage likely to be derived from the speculations of Dr. Beddoes, every person must allow him the praise of exertion and perseverance. The public is now put in possession of additional cases: general attention is excited; and there is no doubt that the subject will undergo that degree of investigation which is necessary to ascertain its merits. That some advantage either immediate or remote will be derived from the labours of these chemical physicians, there is every reason to believe. The man who dug in his field in search of hidden riches, though he discovered not what he sought for, yet found that industry is itself a treasure. We sincerely hope that the success of Dr. Beddoes and his friends may be direct and immediate; and there now seems more reason to believe that it will be so: but this is not their only chance; so intimate is the connection between the different diseases of the human body, so analogous are the operations of various medicines, so uninterrupted is the chain which connects the different parts of the material world, that every extensive and well-conducted course of experiments affords a probability of various improvement. The reasonings of Dr. Black respecting heat led the way to the interesting theories of M. Lavoisier; and these probably conducted our author in his attempts to obviate morbid states of the human body by means of different sorts of air. Thus a speculation concerning the matter of heat, of which many chemists even now doubt the existence, has suggested hints which may be of the utmost importance in alleviating the sufferings, and protracting the duration of life.

In relating his cases, Dr. Beddoes continues to mention the names of the persons relieved, and the places where they resided. The first case is one of paralysis from the yellow fever, relieved by the use of diluted oxygen gas. The four following cases relate to epilepsy, in which the same gas seems to have been prejudicial. The next is a case of melancholia, in which oxygen gas was of some temporary benefit. We are next presented with ten cases relating to asthma, spasmodic affections, chlorosis, and other diseases of debility. In all of these, according to the statement of the cases, oxygen gas seems to have been useful, sometimes singly, and sometimes in conjunction with other remedies.

\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XIII. p. 58, and Vol. XXVI. p. 202.

Case XVII. relates to the use of hydrogen gas in catarrh, in which the person found it so beneficial, that he declares it shall be the first remedy he will use on a similar occasion: two quarts of the hydrogen were diluted with twenty of common air. In a case of pulmonary abscess, a mixture of one part of hydrogen, with forty of common air, was breathed with a soothing effect, and the patient by the help of that and other means ultimately recovered.

The XIXth case is consumption, in which the patient breathed a mixture of one quart of hydro-carbonate with forty of atmospheric air. The other usual means of relief were also employed. He always expressed a sensation of comfort and refreshment after breathing the above mixture, and was cured in five weeks.

Case the XXth is also consumption. A variety of remedies were employed, and among others the hydro-carbonate and the vapour of æther. A case of hæmoptoe was also relieved by the hydro-carbonate and the vapour of æther. We shall extract the following case, as one of those most favourable to the practice of inhalation —

• Richard Newberry, aged 46, a labourer; of a tall and slender make, sanguine temperament, and who, previous to the attack, which I shall describe below, enjoyed good health, was, about the beginning of the month of May last, in consequence of repeated intoxication and exposure to cold, seized with hæmoptysis. I saw him some days thereafter; when he complained of pain in his side, and cough, attended with copious expectoration of frothy mucus, for the most part mixed with blood, which was dark and grumous, but at times of a florid colour. His pulse was frequent, and had some degree of hardness; his tongue was white, and he had considerable thirst; his bowels were regular, and his appetite much diminished. For several evenings after the first attack, Mr. Watt, whose servant he is, gave him a pint of hydro-carbonate, properly diluted; and which he uniformly inhaled, with the evident good effect of diminishing the heat of his body, and of rendering his pulse soon after both slower and softer. By this treatment the pain in his side, and cough were so much mitigated, as to suffer him to pass his nights in sleep; but, as the pain returned with increase in the morning, accompanied with more frequent cough, I directed that a blister should be applied to his side, and that every four hours he should take, in the form of a pill, a mixture of squill with a small proportion of ipecacuanha, and that the modified air should be continued. The pain of his side was much relieved by the blister, and did not afterwards return in the morning; but in the morning after its operation his pulse was much increased both in strength and frequency; and in that state continued until the evening; when, as formerly, in both respects it was much diminished by the repetition

of the hydro-carbonate. The proportion of modified air was now increased to a quart every evening, and continued to occasion, during the inhalation, a grateful sense of warmth in the breast, and slight vertigo; and in the nights to produce sound and refreshing sleep. After this manner he proceeded; the expectoration becoming evidently purulent and offensive, but gradually less mixed with coagulated blood: when, about fourteen days from the date of the first hæmorrhage, having been employed in threshing out some corn, the hæmoptoe returned in considerable degree, preceded by the usual symptoms of flushed cheeks, sense of weight in the breast, with some degree of pain, accompanied by a hawking cough. Mr. Watt, judging by the former beneficial operation of the modified air, and finding his pulse upon this occasion very strong and quick, and his skin very hot, increased the proportion of hydro-carbonate to two quarts, with the most striking advantage; his skin soon thereafter becoming cooler, and his pulse much softer and slower. He passed a good night; but in the morning, when I saw him, he complained, as at first, of his side, coughed frequently, and expectorated blood in considerable quantity. As a blister formerly had removed his pain, I directed another to be applied to his side, which had a similar good effect; and that he should continue the use of the squill and ipecacuanha pill, but in an increased dose. On the third day after the second hæmoptoe, an eruption of the erysipelatous kind spread itself over his right thigh and leg; which induced Mr. Watt to augment the quantity of fastitious air to three pints, twice a day. The discharge of blood soon ceased, and the expectoration again assumed the purulent appearance and offensive smell above described. In a few days the eruption disappeared, and the secretion of the lungs losing its fetor, was expectorated in usual quantity and of its natural quality. He continued a few days ago in perfect health.

‘On the foregoing case I shall only observe, that Newberry himself uniformly expressed much thankfulness for the benefit he invariably received from breathing hydro-carbonate. Had the inhalation of the modified air been repeated more frequently, would it not alone have been adequate to the complete removal of the pain of his side, and consequent cure? As the squill and ipecacuanha pills never produced any sensible alteration, much cannot be attributed to them in the successful result.

‘I remain most sincerely your’s,

‘*To Dr. Beddoes.*’

‘JOHN CARMICHAEL.’ P. 97.

Case XXII. is also consumption cured by inhaling a mixture of one quart of hydro-carbonate to fifty of common air; other remedies were also employed. Another case of consumption is represented as being cured by the same means, and also another relieved. The most remarkable cure, however, of consumption remains to be related, which was brought about accidentally.

identally. A gentleman labouring under consumption was at sea in a warm climate. The bilge water happened to get at some sugar with which the ship was laden. In consequence of this the air between decks became very impure, which induced the gentleman to remain above; but he one day, on going down below, observed that his respiration went on much more easily than on deck. He soon fell into a sound sleep in this new situation; and from that time he remained below in this atmosphere, from which he continued to find relief. His health afterwards daily improved; and he is at this moment in good health, and doing his duty at sea.

The result of these trials in consumption cannot fail to arrest the attention of every physician. We have been taught to believe from the united experience of physicians in all ages, that true phthisis is a complaint of so dangerous a tendency that the utmost which can in almost any case be effected by medical art, is to render slower that progress to the grave which may be considered as almost certain within the course of a few years. We are here, however, assured on respectable authority, that four or five persons have been speedily recovered from this complaint by very easy means; that others have been relieved, while no mention is made of more than one case in which the remedy entirely failed of affording relief, and not one in which it increased the complaint. What are we to think? We must either consider Dr. Beddoes and his friends as great benefactors to mankind, or we must draw conclusions respecting the characters of those gentlemen, which candour forbids.

In his remarks on the above cases of consumption, Dr. Beddoes mentions the case related by Dr. R. Pearson of Birmingham, who took it from Dr. Bergius, in which a lady, in the last stage of consumption, had her distressing symptoms all removed from living the winter in a room with four cows. A similar case is also related of a French lady who was cured by the same means.

'Miscellaneous cases' — The first of these — Case XXV. is dyspepsia cured by vital air in conjunction with other means.

Case XXVI. Corpulency and dyspepsia with shortness of breath, for the cure of which, bark, myrrh, and steel, had been tried without effect. The countenance was very pale. Dr. Beddoes considered these symptoms as denoting a deficiency of oxygen in the blood, or a state of scurvy. Having therefore premised an emetic and calomel cathartic, which brought away a great quantity of slime, he ordered a solution of nitre in vinegar, as recommended by Dr. Patterson in sea-scurvy. The patient was cured in a fortnight.

Case XXVII. Nervous head-ache cured by an aperient draught,



draught, and vital air in a state of much dilution. It is very properly suggested, that, where there is pulsation of the temporal arteries, oxygen should be cautiously employed.

Case XXVIII. Fever cured by vital air in conjunction with the other usual remedies. It is much to be lamented that medicine is peculiarly restricted in its improvement by the difficulty of establishing the effects of new remedies. Every practitioner must feel it a duty to give the patient under his care the best chance of a speedy and complete recovery: and as the medical art is more experimental than theoretical, he perceives the propriety of preferring established practice to the suggestions of his own invention. Dr. Thornton must doubtless have been desirous of trying the efficacy of oxygen by itself in fever, which might have produced a more satisfactory result. But, in case of an unfortunate issue, he could scarcely have satisfied his own conscience that he had done the best for his patient. — The following case seems to be particularly satisfactory —

‘*Ague.* — September 10. Samuel Smith, recommended to my attention by Mr. Adams, optician, Fleet-street, has had an ague above a twelvemonth, caught in working for lady Dunlop, Hadley-Hall, Essex. At first it came on him every third day for a month; the next month every other day; and then three times a day for a short time; after which it settled in a third day ague. Pounds of bark, bark and steel, and a variety of nostrums, had been tried to no purpose. His skin was yellow, his appetite gone, he had great debility, used frequently to faint away, and was, on his well days, nearly incapacitated from work. Having given him the vital air, eight quarts to thirty of atmospheric, for two days, he had a slight attack on the third. The air was continued, and the next attack was still slighter, complexion cleared, appetite improved; and the recurrence of the paroxysm was prevented. Having persisted in the air nearly a month, he was perfectly cured.

‘R. J. THORNTON.’ P. 137.

Case XXIX. Eruption on the arms cured by vital air, nitre and vinegar, and nitrous acid and vinegar for a lotion, myrrh, bark and steel.

Case XXX. Dark-coloured eruption and hardness of the calf of the leg, cured by vital air.

Case XXXI. A child seven years of age had so bad an eruption that she was unable to stand. She was therefore brought to Dr. Thornton in arms; and she inhaled immediately six quarts of vital air mixed with twenty of common air; and ‘such is the fact, in two days time she was able to walk here, above a mile and a half!’

Case XXXII. Scrophula with tumour in the neck, deafness, and

and inflammation of the eyes, countenance pale, body costive, belly large and hard, feet cold, &c. — In this case a cure was performed by rhubarb and vitriolated kali, a sorrel poultice to the tumour of the neck, from which much benefit seemed to result. Vital air was also inhaled. We cannot help proposing a doubt how far it may be proper to employ oxygen in scrophula, a disorder which is commonly supposed to predispose to consumption. That oxygen is hurtful in consumption, Dr. Beddoes and his friends seem entirely to agree. Is there not therefore some danger of turning scrophula into consumption by super-oxygenating the blood?

Case XXXIII. Leprosy of seven years' duration much relieved by inhaling vital air.

'Surgical Cases and Observations.' — Case XXXIV. Extensive ulceration in the neck from a tumour succeeding to fever cured by the application of wood-sorrel and meadow-sweet.

Case XXXV. Scrophulous ulcer cured by a poultice of sorrel leaves, one part, and marsh mallow roots three parts.

Case XXXVI. Inflammation of the breasts cured by inhaling air in which æther had been burned, and by some other usual remedies.

In case XXXVII. some advantage is said to be derived from the inhalation of a mixture of oxygen and hydro-carbonate in promoting the healing process of ulcers. It is also suggested that hydro-carbonate is likely to prove one of the best antispasmodics, and to become useful in locked jaw, hydrophobia, &c.

'Extracts of letters from Mr. Sandford, surgeon, Worcester.' — In these it is mentioned that a charcoal poultice has been found very useful in scalds; and that he has experienced other good effects from sorrel applied as a poultice to scrophulous sores. Mr. Polhill, surgeon to the English hospital at Leghorn; has found diluted lemon juice very useful when applied to scrophulous ulcers on the legs of sailors.

Dr. Beddoes expresses some apprehension that the inhalation of elastic fluids will become too indiscriminate, from 'the rage for respiring them which seems to be kindling,' and that the remedies being improperly adapted will do mischief and fall into neglect. It is the nature of opinions to vibrate: but, like fluids, they ultimately tend to their proper level.

Appendix, No. I. This contains an account of the cause of contagion, by Dr. Samuel Latham Mitchell. — We observe much ingenuity in this paper, but much more uncertain speculation. We are told that the general cause of contagion is the gaseous oxyd of azote or of nitrogen.

II On the use of the nitric acid in medicine, by Mr. William Scott. — This gentleman found that the nitric acid, diluted

ed with as much water as to make it palatable, had the same effect as mercury in raising a salivation. He gives it as his opinion that it is equally as efficacious as mercury in the liver complaints of hot climates; and adds what seems still more extraordinary —

‘ I have now had a pretty extensive experience of the good effects of the nitric acid in syphilis, and I have reason to believe, that it is not in general less effectual than mercury, in removing that disease in all its forms, and in every stage of its continuance.’  
App. p. 74.

If the experience of different practitioners should confirm this observation, great light will be thrown on a subject now very obscure; and a death-blow will be given to the term *specific*, to which appellation mercury seems hitherto to have had a reasonable claim.

III. Case of diseased bladder from gonorrhoea, relieved by *soda* after the usual remedies had failed.

IV. A different complaint of the bladder relieved by the same means.

V. A case of syphilis cured by two drachms of strong nitric acid; taken daily in a quart of water. It produced a salivation in seven days, and quickly cured the complaint after mercury in all its forms had failed!

VI. This paper is chiefly extracted from the *Journal de Physique*, where an account is given of the French method of preserving salubrity in their military-hospitals. Their method is to pour vitriolic acid on heated sea salt, by which the marine acid is disengaged in a state of vapour.

VII. Relates to Mr. Gimbernat's new method of operating for the femoral hernia.

VIII. Contains an account of a young man cured of hæmoptoe and suppuration of the lungs, by inspiring every day the smoke from a lime-kiln.

Having endeavoured to communicate to the public the most important facts contained in this pamphlet, we think it our duty to express our opinion that this publication is much more satisfactory than any which have preceded it on this subject.

*Family Secrets, Literary and Domestic. By Mr. Pratt. 5 Vols.*  
12mo. 1l. 5s. Longman. 1797.

A Disposition to pry into family secrets is felt, we presume, more or less, by every son or daughter of Eve. Mr Pratt, sensible of this, has kindly provided for the indulgence of this propensity without prejudice to our neighbour. Five duodecimo

five volumes of family secrets must contain, on a moderate calculation, as much as may be learnt from nine chamber-maids, thirteen columns of the best newspaper intelligence, and the fashionable visiting of a whole season; consequently it offers a great saving both of time and money. We cannot afford much by way of sample, not being sufficiently paid for dealing in secrets; suffice it to say, that they arise from the adventures of two brothers, whose characters are meant to be strongly contrasted with each other, (for as to the third, he stands in such an insipid medium that he puts one in mind of the ass between two bundles of hay) one of whom is secretly in love with the lady who is destined from her infancy to be the wife of the other; the favoured youth is deeply in love with another lady, who has an equal passion for him. She is a Roman catholic, and has the misfortune to have a father of so violent and atrocious a character, that all intercourse but what is stolen is broken off between her family and her lovers. Henry, the youth in question, is loved with the fondest, and, it might be added, the most *bumble* attachment by his intended bride, who has been brought up with him, and has been accustomed to construe every affectionate expression of brotherly regard or casual compliment into a confession of mutual passion. Henry seeing this and the deep disappointment his parents would suffer if their scheme of happiness should prove abortive, entangled by pity for Olivia (the love-lorn damsel) and by several misinterpreted incidents, at length marries her. John, the second brother, heroically suffers his secret to prey upon his peace in silence. Many other characters and incidents, interwoven with these, conduct the work to the conclusion; at which, by the opportune death of Olivia, Henry finds himself at liberty to marry the only real object of his choice. The sentiments of this novel are in the high strain of heroic love; some comic characters, and particularly Partington, a sea captain, is introduced; but his is by no means a natural one: and upon the whole, though there is as much love and delicate distress as may perhaps induce a professed novel reader to get through the five volumes, it is in vain we look for the powers which embellished, with so much interesting pathos, the simpler story of Emma Corbett. The work is, however, entirely in favour of virtuous feelings. We shall give, by way of specimen, the letter of an old servant to his young mistress, who is turned out of doors by her father sir Guise —

‘ TO MISS CAROLINE STUART.

‘ Honoured my lady,

‘ After begging a thousand pardons for this boldness, seeing I am but an humble servant, but, I trust in God, of good designs, I must let your ladyship know of my state, which is the windfall of my

brother Ned's farm and the like, come to me by death of Ned this past week, which I have to notice to your honour's valuation, for being on lease for 21 years, of which 11 are yet to come, of goods and chattels, as per advice, 1400*l.* and ready money upwards of 500*l.* besides the savings up of 1100*l.* in your honoured honour's family, by the mother's side, with whom I was bred and born, and with whom, God willing, I will die, and, if I may be so free, buried. Now I can hardly go on with penning my letter for what I hear about your honour's going to shut yourself up for life, and young 'squire master's taking himself over sea. As to the first, consider, my dear good young lady — pardon my boldness — if any thing should happen you don't foresee — for, Lord save us! we are poor short-sighted creatures — and I have my thoughts about some matters that may not be spoken to; what a sad thing it would turn out, to be closed as it were between walls and never to come out — and your dear honour should consider a day is to come, when the poor (and rich too) of this parish will call for you — and, alas! you cannot hear them, nor do them good — the thought whereof, if it should come across in your lonesome cell, would be a heart-breaking to you — And what if other matters should come round — I must not speak of the castle; therefore, shall only say love is not to be fastened out by bolts nor bars, and I have my misgivings; I will say no more, miss, but I have my misgivings; and I told all this and more to his reverence. As to the other affair — the 'squire's going to transport himself, his honour should think he is heir, and God give him life to take possession of this estate, and sir Guise cannot hope to live for ever — and, begging pardon for my boldness, it is not fit he should; I hope the good 'squire will think what will betide every thing at the old abbey, if the new fangled strange woman — I can't for the heart of me call her my lady — is left to have every thing her own way; and if the lawful heir is away, and your honour shut up, who is to prevent these doings? If an humble servant, therefore, may be so bold to advise, it is this, that your honour will be so kind as to make use of the above 1100*l.* seeing it belongs to the family, by your ladyship's side, and as the chapel-house is, as I may say, in a straight between two, the abbey and the castle, both being too near neighbours, seeing they are not friends, and must be, as circumstances now are, eye-sores to your honour and the 'squire, my brother Ned's farm has a topping good house upon it — and as I know something of the business, I could carry on the farming, and your honours might live upon the same, and with his reverence and his good little black, we might be happy, in an humble way, considering what your honours have been used to, till God sees good time to restore you to your own; and as his reverence says we carry our own heaven or hell about us; so our heaven upon earth may as well be at Ned's farm, as any where else, till we all get into your heavens above. Such is your humble servant's

vant's good counsel; but if it so be it be not taken, and your honours prefer a London town life, or the like of this public way, Ned's farm might be turned into hard money, for as to carrying it on against your honour's good will, or your honours to live in one place, and Dennison in another, it is not to be reckoned upon, seeing it cannot be; for as it is said in the holy bible, used in churches, "wheresoever you lodge will I lodge," and so on. The lease, and the stock, and the households, would make up a roundish-like sum, and your honour's tool might go thereto, and together we might live bobbishly. Now do not, my good lady miss, think my humble designs, hereby, to hurt you, the squire, or his reverence, by making a mighty matter of the aforesaid, in the way of vain-glory, which is a sin forbidden, and if it were not, I should be ashamed of, for if a man's heart goes to the thing that should not be, what are laws and gospels, in churches and chapels, your honour? Old Dennison is no boaster, an' please your ladyship; when your honours can render back unto Cæsar, that is Dennison, even to the uttermost farthing, that which is Cæsar's, to-wit Dennison's, so be it; I don't gainsay it, forasmuch as I know by myself, the joy of giving is greater than taking, and I would desire your honours to have joy both ways; I only mean, that if in my time the wherewithal should not come, it would not signify, as I have neither chick nor child, and my last testament would be as well put in force by your dear worthy honours when I am in my grave; but I pray it may be in the parish where your honours mean to lie, which I suppose will be here in Stuart chapel. But this matter will be found more fully in what I shall leave behind, I mean in the testament; therein too is, all and severally, specified my devisings, hoping your honours will be the sole executors of your poor humble servant, to command,

‘ NESTOR DENNISON.

‘ P. S. Finding I did not well know how to speak the above to your honours, I have put it down on paper, though I'm in the same house.’ Vol. iii. p. 244.

*The Life of John Hunter. By Jesse Foot, Surgeon. 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Becket.*

**W**HEN we reviewed the posthumous work of Mr. Hunter, published by Mr. Home, in the thirteenth volume of our New Arrangement, we shortly passed over his life, designing, under the auspices of another author, to examine it more particularly. This author, Mr. Foot, is certainly a prejudiced writer: in our varied warfare, we have followed his steps, occasionally reprehended his eager petulance, sometimes corrected his misrepresentations. In taking up the sub-  
ject,

ject, therefore, in our examination of his work, it must not be supposed that we adopt his sentiments; but as Mr. Foot has considered, at some length, the scientific opinions of Mr. Hunter, his work affords a better text for our remarks. In reality, Mr. Hunter's life forms an epoch in physiology; and as, in imitation of a late essayist, we consider some occasional resting places, from whence we can examine more perfectly the progress of science, as highly useful, we shall employ this work for the purpose, designing it in part as an introduction to another, perhaps the first of a new class, we mean Dr. Darwin's *Zoonomia*;—each, perhaps, from circumstances uninteresting to the general reader, too long delayed; but each, probably, from this delay, more carefully and more maturely considered.

As we have professed to take up this work as forming an *æra* in science, we must pass lightly over what is less connected with our object. We shall therefore omit noticing the sneers and the more serious introduction of Mr. Foot, and step at once to the first work of his author, the discovery, or the supposed discovery, of the structure of the testis, claimed also by Dr. Monro.

One or two remarks we must premise. It is highly creditable in a lecturer, to state, at the earliest moment, his hints or his suspicions. These, even in a crude form, may give a foundation for other experiments: and should his views be prosecuted, he will certainly merit the honour of a discovery, raised on the foundation he had laid. It is for the benefit of science in general, that this axiom should be adopted, as it will encourage the professor in candid communications, and will expand suggestions which may be matured and followed with advantage. Dr. Black has the undisputed honour of the theory of latent heat, which he never explained but in his annual courses: Dr. Hunter claimed, without a rival, the discovery of the nature of the decidua, and other parts of the gravid uterus, long before his publications on these subjects. This axiom Mr. Foot seems to deny in the present instance, as connected with anatomical preparations, which require a skill in their formation, equivalent to the ingenuity of the discovery. The opinion is confessedly demonstrated by the preparation: but it is demonstrated also by observations on the functions, both in a state of health and disease; and when the subject to be demonstrated is known, much of the merit, derived only from the preparation, is lost. In the present instance, Dr. Hunter filled the testis (for to Dr. Hunter this part of the volume belongs) as soon as Dr. Monro; but he had not dissected it, nor shown the tubes of the testis injected from the epididymis: each may, perhaps, claim the honour of

of the discovery; but, added to the first attempt, and the first dawning of success, which more properly belong to Haller, Dr. Monro completed the discovery; and it is no little addition to his other honours. On the subject of the absorbent system, nearly the same observations might be made. Dr. Hunter undoubtedly stated his suspicions of their being a distinct system of absorbents, unconnected with the circulating system; but these suspicions were little more than other authors had expressed; and, from numerous observations in the works of former anatomists, they seem only to be the immediate and obvious conclusions from the facts known. Dr. Monro, on the contrary, led on by accidental appearances whose nature he did not for a time understand, soon came to his conclusion on the subject, and supported the new doctrine with apposite experiments and observations. In each instance, however, Dr. Hunter deserves the highest credit. Mr. J. Hunter only appears at the close of the comedy, confirming, with his experiments, what had long before been shown. The observations and dissections, illustrative of the hernia congenita, are more truly his own, though the discovery belongs to Haller. They merit great praise in the eye even of Mr. Foot, who has introduced these subjects, which he has filled with much irrelevant matter, as the vehicles of illiberal sarcasm.

Mr. John Hunter makes his appearance only at p. 71, unless the story of his being bred a carpenter, being unable to write his own papers, and constantly declaring that he never read any work, be considered as important remarks. They only become important when connected with Mr. Foot's observation, that, had he read more, he would not have so much excelled his contemporaries. This point would require a longer discussion than we are able to afford it: we shall add, however, a few short remarks. An active strong mind probably will not require extensive study to prepare it for stepping beyond common bounds. Much is perceived intuitively; and such a man hastily steps over the intermediate arguments to arrive at the conclusion. Yet this rapidity is attended with inconveniences: haste and inaccuracy are closely allied; and where little has been previously known, the new acquisition will acquire a more striking appearance, and be cherished with a fonder care. By the same means, error is often fostered under the guise of improvement; for a little overweening conceit will fondly suggest that no objection *can* be brought against the doctrine, when the extent of its parent's knowledge can supply none. In all Mr. Hunter's works, we see the constant influence of these causes; and though we allow him a great share of ingenuity, sagacity, and diligence, we

find



find much to reprehend, and various occasions to wish his knowledge more matured by previous investigations of the labours of others in the same departments.

Mr. Foot gives a catalogue of his works, and indulges himself in observations on each, seldom favourable to its author. In the first paper in the Philosophical Transactions, the digestion of the stomach after death, the character of Spalanzani is unreasonably raised, to depress Mr. Hunter. It is highly probable that the latter exaggerated the appearances which occurred to him, as future or former anatomists had not observed them. It is equally probable that the slight erosions, generally admitted to take place, are connected with the remaining heat of the body, and that the solution is checked by its escape. In reality, the appearances are those of common solution, not properly of digestion, which implies the separation, or the production of something different from the food itself. This did not occur to Mr. Hunter, or was rejected by him: for the abbé, in a subsequent paper, is treated very rudely—a treatment as unmerited as Mr. Foot's praises.

The torpedo, Mr. Foot contends, had been often dissected before, and the muscles by which it produces the shock, demonstrated; but candour should have suggested, that the shock having been considered as electrical, Mr. Hunter discovered the natural battery, and traced a large proportion of nerve to these organs. This had not been pointed out by any former anatomist. Yet this required no great ingenuity or sagacity: many of his pupils might have succeeded equally well.

In the paper 'on the Air Cells in the Bones of Birds,' Mr. Foot remarks, with some triumph, that he was anticipated by Camper; forgetting that he, in the former part of the life, rested much on Mr. Hunter's want of education, and his ignorance of Latin, in which professor Camper's observations were published. It is gratuitous to assert, that Mr. Hunter may have heard of the professor's work; and he is fairly entitled to all the merit of the discovery. It is not perhaps sufficient to excite much envy.

Mr. Watson, it seems, had described the gellaroe trout before Mr. Hunter, and shown that the animal's digestion was by a stomach, not by a gizzard. It is highly probable that in this instance, as well as in the stomach of the pangolin, which is similar in its structure, the hardness is rather the consequence of its mixing stinty substances with its food, than any original difference in its structure. The dissection of the *gymnotus electricus*, even Mr. Foot allows to be original.

Mr. Hunter's paper 'on the Power which Animals and Vegetables possess of producing Heat,' is attacked with great injustice

injustice and illiberality. It is said not to be original, because some experiments had just before been made on the power of animals in generating *cold*. The whole paper is undoubtedly exceptionable, both as a logical and physiological essay; but not nearly so faulty as Mr. Foot's philosophical explanation of heat. To resist the effects of cold, surely does not imply the production of heat.

The attack on the 'Proposals for the Recovery of People apparently Drowned' is also highly unjust. De Haen has shown, by drowning animals in coloured fluids, that water has been in the lungs, when none of it remains. The case of the *living* dog is not represented as analogous to that of a *drowned* man; but the former is only related, as suggesting the use of the bellows in the latter event. Though the bellows, as contended, cannot draw out the foam, yet, by exhausting the lungs, they disengage the air from water; and by again introducing air not saturated with water, they contribute to lessen the pressure. They are, undoubtedly, of service in such cases. It is equally unjust and illiberal to censure the use of the word '*trance*,' when it is, in the same sentence, defined as a suspension only of the action of life, to cancel the leaf, in order to add another weak sarcasm, deserves the severest reprehension.

In the observations on Mr. Hunter's work on the teeth, we find a few observations of importance. Mr. Hunter is convicted of some careless inaccuracies, and of the crying sin of not quoting his predecessors. The cause of Mr. Hunter engaging in this subject is by no means disgraceful. His own industry was rewarded, and a modest worthy man brought forward to notice.

The tree martin is known to be generally, though not universally, an hermaphrodite: yet, as the deviation from either sex is not uniform, the animal, it is contended, is not an hermaphrodite, but a *lusus naturæ*. Admitted: yet, as all hermaphrodites are confessedly instances only of 'an imperfect formation of the parts of generation of one or other sex,' — the terms are synonymous, and the whole disquisition is only a *lusus verborum*.

As Mr. Hunter did not choose to republish his case of the woman who '*seemed*' to have communicated the small-pox to her foetus, we may conclude that he had some reasons for altering his opinion. We need not enlarge on it, as Dr. Pearson has lately examined the question so fully and satisfactorily.

The remarks on the description of the extraordinary pheasant are short. Mr. Foot adds — 'Have I not been sufficiently full upon this subject?' We reply, No! For the facts, the object,

object, and the intentions, are suppressed, mutilated, or misrepresented.

The account of the organ of hearing in fishes excites displeasure, because no former author is quoted. In fact, there are other preceding authors, whom Mr. Foot is not acquainted with. But he admits that Mr. Hunter could not or did not read.

The new marine animal may not be new; and the treatise on the venereal disease is not immaculate; but the former is a trifling subject; and, on the latter, we have already examined Mr. Foot's criticism. That extirpating one ovarium lessens the prolific power in general, we think highly probable; but admit that one experiment is not sufficient to ascertain the fact; nor can we fully agree with Mr. Hunter, that his facts support the identity of the species of the wolf, dog, and jackall.

The paper 'on the Structure and Economy of Whales' is certainly a curious performance; and though the larger species were not fully examined, nor the examination of some others repeated so often as he himself might wish, numerous circumstances, hitherto unknown, are recorded in it. The weak sneers of the critic will not injure the veteran's shield; but the arrow may recoil on himself. We cannot give an equally favourable account of the 'Observations on Bees.' Much has been anticipated, and some things we suspect to be erroneous.

Some other short essays are inserted in the work, on the animal economy. These we have formerly noticed: and the remarks of Mr. Foot are not so important, as to require our returning to them. What he has observed respecting the use of the compress on inflamed veins, is so vague and trifling, as to require our serious reprehension. Is a compress on the inflamed vein, on or above the wound, useful? We know it is: Hunter and Abernethy have said the same; nor can all the trifling *verbiage* of circuitous and hypothetical disquisition disprove the *fact*.

After the consideration of these works, our author examines the private life of Mr. Hunter, his professional skill, and the formation of his museum. John Hunter is allowed to have been singularly active and industrious. His mind expanded into new regions; and he saw more extensively, perhaps, than clearly. It happened to him, as to many others, that, grasping at too much, he perceived nothing very distinctly; aiming at universality, the mass was seldom digested into a regular organised whole. In his essays, the thoughts are bold and original; the observations often new, and generally detailed with a spirit and animation wholly his own. But they are

are encumbered with words which are little connected with them, with hasty glances at collateral subjects, which confuse, or obscured by an unskillful arrangement, which weakens their impression. As a surgeon, he is pronounced to be 'inferior, dangerous, and irregular.' This is language too harsh. The practice of physic and surgery requires a clear undisturbed mind,—a precision which discriminates the object from every similar one, or any collateral circumstance. This Mr. Hunter did not always possess; and, in the practice of surgery, we cannot consider him in the *very* first line. Yet he was not 'dangerous;' for where the disease was not connected with anatomy, his practice was timid and trifling. On one subject he is reprehended too severely. He was only cautious, when others were decided; and his caution on a point where certainty was not attainable, must certainly be more becoming than its opposite, dogmatism. We allude to the trial of Donellan.

His museum is a living monument of his skill, his industry, and sagacity. We mean not, by the latter, an empty word to round a sentence: to trace each link of nature's chain,—to mark the progressive perfection from the simplest organisation, to the complicated arrangement of the different parts of the human frame, from the vegetable, the *tænia*, to man,—requires a sagacity and judgment in the choice of the subjects, which distinguishes the naturalist far above the line to which any publication can raise him. Mr. Foot reluctantly allows his merit; and when he sneers at the peculiar opinions of the author, supposed to be canvassed in 'his little senate,' the Lyceum,—let him reflect that the suggestion of topics like these confers the highest honour. To start from the beaten track is a labour of no common kind; and even error, by exciting observation and eliciting truth, becomes advantageous to mankind.

Mr. Hunter's appointments were numerous and lucrative; but the man who has expended his fortune and exhausted his constitution in the cause of science, has a right to the emoluments which its professional line can bestow. If from prejudice he was occasionally partial, let those only condemn him who are above partiality; and no man is above it but he who knows the various openings by which opinion is assailed. In the present instance, we must say for ourselves, that we had not the slightest acquaintance with Mr. Hunter; nor have we with Mr. Foot: we have never received from either, nor can we expect to receive, the slightest favour or disrespect.

One candid allowance we must give credit for in the present work, that the irritable state of Mr. Hunter's mind was owing to the local disease of which he died. Let us then draw

a veil

a veil over this imperfection, as an involuntary one; and let us conclude, that, with every error, science has lost, in Mr. Hunter, a bright though not a faultless ornament; that his death has formed a chasm in the most brilliant link of the professional chain, which will not soon be restored.

*Travels in Hungary, with a short Account of Vienna in the Year 1793. (Concluded from p. 17.)*

TO the remarks which closed our account of this work in a former Number, succeeds a translation of the '*Urbanium*,' or contract between the landlord and peasant, as fixed by law. In this, which affords an interesting view of the political situation of the country, we find oppression very curiously methodised. The heads of this extraordinary code are, 1. Of the quantity of land apportioned under certain regulations to the peasantry. 2. Of the privileges of the peasantry. 3. Of their labour or personal service. 4. Of the dues of the landlord. 5. Of the ninths of the produce of the soil, and of the *bergrecht*. 6. Of the rights and privileges of the landlord. 7. Of prohibited abuses and excesses. 8. Of things forbidden to the peasants, and the punishments ensuing thereon. 9. Of the internal police.

'By this ordinance' (says Dr. Townson) 'the reciprocal rights of the peasants and their landlords are determined, and it appears, that the Hungarian peasant pays to his lord, for twenty-five acres of arable land (each acre containing about twelve hundred square fathoms), and twelve days mowing of meadow land, a ninth of the produce of the soil, of the lambs, kids and bees, and about one hundred and eleven days labour, two shillings for rent, and three shillings for fowls, butter, &c.

'This I conceive to be no hard contract for the peasant. I have been informed by several great landed proprietors, that they did not receive upon an average, taking all their dues together, more than equal to a gulden, or about two shillings English, for an acre. The hardship lies chiefly in the nature of the contract: this is a reciprocal hardship, as inconvenient for the landlord as for the peasant. It chiefly arises from receiving labour for payment; yet this kind of payment is always used in similar cases, in the first stages of improvement. This compels the landlord to keep a great part of his lands in his own hands, to employ the labour of his peasants, however he may dislike rural economy. The law must entrust him, as I have lately said, with great authority over his peasants. He requires a great many stewards, bailiffs, and overseers to assist him, and to these he must delegate a part of this authority

over

over them. From hence arise complaints from them, on the hardship of their fate, and of the severity of their masters; and from these no less complaints of the perverse, obstinate, idle, and discontented disposition of their peasants; who by not being interested in the labour they perform for their lords, first are slothful in the performance of this, and then through custom become slothful in their own: and thus a bad state of husbandry pervades the lands. A great landed proprietor in Bohemia assured me, that he found it much his interest, to accept of fixpence from his peasants who were obliged to work for him, instead of a day's labour; and give ninepence to others over whom he had no other authority than dismissing them from his service.

It is, I think, a remark of the learned Dr. Ferguson, that nations, however proximate, seldom receive from one another such a discovery as can improve the state of their society, till they are nearly in a state to make it themselves. Whether this can in any degree account for the, in some degree, retrograde steps of the Hungarian peasantry, I must leave to those who are better acquainted with this part of history than I am. But it appears that the *gleba adscriptio*, or villanage of the peasantry, was ages ago suppressed: it was suppressed by Sigismund; and this suppression was confirmed by several public acts of some of his successors: but it crept in again.

The year seventeen hundred and eighty-five forms an epoch no less favourable for the state of the peasantry than 1764. Nothing could be more contrary to the views of Joseph II. than a debased peasantry, that order through which, had he succeeded in his plans of reform, he expected to have received all his resources. The suppression of the *gleba adscriptio* took place in Bohemia and Moravia by the order of this sovereign in 1781, and in 1785 it was extended to this kingdom: and though, as we shall soon see, this monarch was before his death obliged to give back to the nobility their antient rights and privileges which he had taken from them, and thus cancel his own acts, this act was excepted.

This right of the peasantry to leave their landlords, did manufactures and the industry of towns flourish in this kingdom, would be sufficient soon to make them find their just value in society, and get rid of unreasonable humiliations: though indeed peasants are little inclined to change their occupations, and they often remain cultivators of the soil on which they are bred under many hardships, rather than become mechanics; and a peasant who should leave the estate on which he was born, and should apply to another landlord, would meet but with little encouragement; and as a certificate must first be obtained from his last landlord, some hindrances can still be thrown in the way of those who wish to better their lot.—Such then is the connection between the peasantry and their landlords.

' To the public, of which the peasantry here forms no part, they have obligations likewise; for, the great aristocratic body being as I lately said exempt from bearing any part of the public burthens, these naturally fall upon the citizens and peasants, who are emphatically styled in the public acts the *misera contribuentis plebs*.

' These pay a tax which is called a contribution, part into the military chest, and part into the county chest, or *caffa domestica*; from the first the military stationed in the province are paid, and from the latter the expences of the government of the county, the repairs of the roads and bridges, and the damages sustained by the peasants by fire, storms, and inundations; and likewise the expences of the deputies or representatives of the county, that is, of the nobility, when attending the diets. It is assessed on the ability and opulence of the peasant, in the following manner :

			Deca.
' The peasant is valued at	-	-	1
His 2 sons capable of working	-	-	1
4 daughters ditto	-	-	1
4 farming servants, men	-	-	1
8 ditto ditto, women	-	-	1
2 draught or fat oxen	-	-	1
2 milk cows	-	-	1
4 horses	-	-	1
4 young oxen	-	-	1
8 calves	-	-	1
16 hogs	-	-	1
32 young pigs	-	-	1
Winter corn, of a whole farm	-	-	2
Summer ditto, ditto	-	-	2
Meadows producing six fuders of hay	-	-	2
A still	-	-	1
Sheep and bees, according to the profit arising from them.			

' If the peasant is besides a shoemaker, taylor, weaver, smith, &c. this makes an additional deca. What is paid for a deca I am at present not able to inform my readers; but I hope to do this in an Appendix \*. That part paid into the *caffa domestica* must vary, according to the expences of the county.' P. 131.

Having completed his account of the state of the kingdom in 1780, our author next traces, with a judicious hand, the causes which led to the revocation of the arbitrary system introduced by Joseph II. in the course of his reign. This is not less interesting than the succeeding detail of the conces-

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\* We do not find this expectation realized in the Appendix.

tions drawn from the reigning king, which consist of seventy-four articles, and are closed with the following very apposite reflections—

‘ Thus’ (says the author), ‘ a storm raised through imprudent and ill-timed reformations, which might have severed from the Austrian monarchy the finest part of its dominions, blew over; and now the liberty of the peasants, and the toleration of the protestants, were confirmed by acts of the diet.

‘ The persecution of the latter had often given rise not only to bickerings, but to acts of violence. Shall not injustice, hatred, and avarice, have endeavoured to accomplish their ends under the mask of religious zeal? Shall not a difference of opinion in religious matters have been in this country, as in others, a cause of public misfortunes? The rights of the protestants, by the articles of the peace of Vienna in 1606, agreed on between their protector, Botskai and the emperor, Rudolf; and by the peace of Linz, in 1645, between their supporter Rakotzi and the emperor Ferdinand III. were solemnly secured: yet this did not prevent them from subsequent persecution under different pretences. How could the best of sovereigns, when surrounded by their enemies, ever active in their endeavours to render them odious to him, by describing them as a most dangerous sect, be their protector? Under the virtuous Theresa they were not less vexed, than under the profligate prince, who was taught, that his deviations from virtue might be made up for by zeal to the true church. By a resolution of Theresa, in 1749, it was ordered, that those who should leave the catholic persuasion, should be imprisoned for two years; and if within this time they should not return to the church, they should be sent to hard labour!!! But let it be known, for the honour of Hungary, that in the diet of 1791, when the rights of the protestants were confirmed, exclusive of the clergy there were only eighty-four members who voted against them; though two hundred and ninety-one for them; of whom one hundred and eighty-one were magnates, and the greatest part of them catholics. How great an honour is this spirit of toleration to the Hungarian nation!—Where is there a nation in Europe, in which the seceding religions have the privileges they have here? entire freedom of public worship, with churches and bells, and their own schools and seminaries of learning; and a right to fill all the public offices, and a seat in the legislative councils.’ p. 169.

After exhibiting this subject more in detail by a translation of the 26th article of the diet of 1791, the author adds—

‘ I am sorry to be obliged to detract something from this favourable account by observing, that the kings of Hungary, as first patrons of the church, have great influence in religious matters, as



may be seen by the preceding piece; and that as the confirmation of the rights of the protestants has never prevented them from persecution, so probably in future, should Hungary have a bigoted sovereign, they may not be entirely free from molestation. Many of the catholics, and even many of their priests, are no doubt men of liberal minds; yet there are too many still strenuous adherers to the principles of the church of Rome, and artful and intolerant priests too readily get the ascendancy over weak men. A few years ago the lord-lieutenant of the county of Zips was called to account for excluding the Lutherans of his county from some public charge; and it then came out, that he had formerly taken an oath to the catholics to do so.

Father Coppi, an enlightened and learned man, wrote in 1792 a funeral sermon on count Rada, a very virtuous, respectable and learned protestant, in which he used these words: "Vive igitur, illustrissime comes, vive vitam hanc, quam posuisti beatiorē \*? Mirabimini forte, hæc ab homine catholico ita dici; verum novemus, utique nos quoque non alium vivorum atque mortuorum judicem nosse quam qui muneris † sibi et quidem soli divinitus datum affirmavit." The censor, an ex-jesuit, ordered this to be altered or omitted, saying, "Scandalosum enim est, ut protestanti, nullum signum poenitentiae danti, æternam beatitudinem adgratulemur."

The protestants must not be considered as a small insignificant sect. It is generally believed that the protestants, that is the Lutherans and Calvinists, are equal in number to the catholics; and a couple of centuries ago they were more numerous. It is said in the *Manche Hermaen*, that in 1559 all the great families except three were protestants. De Lucca says, the protestants of Hungary and Transylvania, in 1779, were only 450,000; but prior to the conscription of 1785, the population of this kingdom was greatly undervalued, as we shall soon see. Here, as well as in Germany, they are more esteemed for morals, good sense, learning and industry, than the catholics. Yet they have often been treated with great severity, as though they were the worst members of society: from the year 1681 to 1773, they had not less than 675 churches taken from them. p. 180.

Under the head of 'Statistics,' we find the following remarks—

'The ruling principle of the court of Vienna, it is true, is to consider this country as its magazine of raw materials; and as a consumer of its manufactures. Against this principle great complaints are justly made; but as it has no manufactures but of the coarsest kind, which are for home consumption, it is only felt as an evil preventing the rise of manufactures.

\* ----- vitam, *hanc*, quam posuisti, beatiorē -----? Rev.

† ----- id muneris -----? Rev.

\* But

‘ But the clogs that are put on the exportation of its natural produce, in which the riches of the kingdom and the revenues of its opulent land-holders consist, is an evil continually galling individuals. Wherever I went I was led into cellars full of wine, and into granaries full of corn, and I was shewn pastures full of cattle. If I felicitated the owners upon their rich stores, and of articles never out of fashion, I heard one common complaint — the want of a market, the want of buyers. ’

‘ Some of its natural productions are rivals to the natural produce of other parts of the Austrian dominions, as its wines. The exportation therefore of this article is checked by imposts and custom-house formalities and expences. ’

‘ The local situation of Hungary is unfavourable : it is chiefly surrounded with countries which stand in no need of its produce. It has fine rivers, but these run in a different direction from the course of its commerce, the Austrian provinces, which are the markets for four-fifths of its exportation ; whilst they run toward Turkey. And land carriage is rendered very expensive by the badness of the roads, and territorial tolls ; a thing severely felt upon raw produce. ’

‘ An Hungarian writer says, that good wine which is bought for six shillings, has an additional expence upon it of eight shillings when it reaches the port of Trieste ; and that corn which is bought for two shillings, an expence of six ; tobacco that costs twelve shillings a hundred weight, likewise an addition of six. ’ p. 194.

The succeeding chapter, which describes our author's journey from Bude to Erlau, contains little worthy of remark, except to the mineralogist. In his account of Erlau, he gives a curious portrait of the bishop, and of the university erected by him at an enormous expence ; though, to get money, the worthy prelate was guilty of almost every species of meanness and extortion.

‘ How *bizarre* ’ (says Dr. Townson) ‘ is the human character ! Will it be credited that the man who exacts his rights with so much severity, as to make himself considered by his flock, not as a father and protector, but as a hard, severe and unjust master, and to alienate the friendship and esteem of every one, except of a few churchmen raised by himself, whom he selects from the lower ranks, not out of charity, but that they may be more dependant upon him — that he should have erected a public edifice which would be an honour to a crowned head ! ’

‘ The university, a very fine building, was erected entirely at his expence. It is said to have cost him, including its furniture, 200,000 pounds. The world must not be so uncharitable as to suppose that he has gained this immense sum solely by the monopoly of wine ; nor entertain so high an opinion of his virtues, as

to think that heaven, in answer to his prayers, supplied him by miracles with it. No: he is an Esterhazy, and his family estate is about ten thousand a-year; and the see of Erlau was always considered as one of the richest in the kingdom, so that a few centuries ago the sovereigns of Hungary, on account of its immense revenues, ordered that their fourth sons should be maintained from it: and the quota of troops from this bishopric, in an *insurrectio*, is the same as that of the primate, the archbishop of Gran. Its revenue is estimated at twenty thousand sterling a year. Twenty thousand and ten thousand make thirty thousand; and on this a single man, I think, may live; though I believe he only vegetates. His countrymen do not know what to make of him; some consider him as a great bigot, others as a knave, and some as a mixture of both. He is a bitter enemy to the protestants. I would not believe it till I heard it from many, and in different places, that he carries his zeal so far as to buy people over to his own religion. If any of the protestant nobility are poor, and will change their religion, he settles on them a pension according to the influence of their families. These bribes are said to amount to six or seven thousand a year. *Relata refero.* P. 225.

In passing from Erlau to Debretzin, such is the state of agriculture, that our author observed in many places great heaps of dung, which appeared to have remained there a very long time, and had been thrown there merely with a view to *get rid of it*; the land in many parts of Hungary, as the inhabitants, and even their committee of agriculture pretend, requiring no manure. On the contrary, the true *Magyars*\* assert, that their soil is *too rich*; yet they are in the practice of letting it rest every third year, which, as Dr. Townson justly observes, is somewhat contradictory. He says —

‘All the country lying between these two towns is a *puszta*†. There is not a single village in the whole journey, though the distance is fifty miles; only about half way there is a tolerably good inn: now and then at a great distance I saw a solitary spire: all is an immense and boundless waste. It is part of the great plain I lately mentioned. But though it is only sown here and there with corn, yet it is not lost; it feeds immense quantities of cattle. Their hardy keepers stay out with them, covered with their rough sheepskin clothing, weeks together. It is chiefly amongst these herdsmen that the custom of besmearing their shirts with hog’s lard, and the fat of bacon, with a view to cleanliness, prevails. Thus anointed they can wear them a whole summer without washing, and it is said by this means they are kept free from those creatures

\* ‘Ancient name of the Hungarians.’      † ‘A cattle-farm.’

“whose

"whose hourly food is human gore." Ought we not to consider this as a proof of the greater sensibility of the *Pulex irritans*, *Pediculus humanus* & *pubis*, than of man — or at least of these men? p. 235.

On Debretzin, our author makes the following singular remarks —

'To what circumstance Debretzin owes its existence I don't know; nor can I divine what can have induced thirty thousand people to select a country destitute of springs, rivers, building materials, fuel, and the heart-cheering vine, for their residence. Debretzin, though it has the title and privileges of a town, must be considered as a village; and then it is perhaps the greatest village in Europe. But should it be considered as a town, it is one of the worst, though its inhabitants are not the poorest. It is surrounded with a hedge, and the town gates are like our field-gates, and stuck with thorns, and brambles. The houses, with only a few exceptions, consist merely of the ground-floor; they are thatched, and have the gable-end turned towards the street: these are not paved; but, in a few of the most frequented, balks are laid down in the middle for the *pietons*.

'By far the greatest part of the inhabitants are Calvinists: their gloomy manners and dress, together with the gloomy weather that happened during my stay here, made this altogether a dismal place. The principal college of this sect in the kingdom is here. The building is irregular, old and decaying; much resembling one of our alms-houses, when on the point of being taken down and sold for old materials: yet often in such dismal abodes, not only deep learning has been acquired, but genius has been taught to shine in works of fancy. The students are very numerous: the *togati*, who alone are lodged in it, are about four hundred; these attend the lectures on the higher branches of learning: eight of them are packed together in one small room, but each has his separate bed. The younger scholars are near a thousand, but they only pass the hours of study here: these are six, three in the forenoon and three in the afternoon. As there are only four professors or teachers, nine of the *togati* assist in teaching the younger scholars; for their trouble they receive a small *douceur* from the parents of those they teach: it is but a mean present, yet such as has in rude times formed the recompense of heroes: it is a — plate of victuals as an addition to their frugal repasts. The teachers receive a salary of about sixty pounds a year. I was invited by, I think, the head professor, to be present at the exercises of some of the *togati*. The one in which he chose they should exhibit before me was — psalm-singing: they were fine stout fellows, and roared lustily. The library was in unison with the rest of the establishment. I scarce saw any thing but classics, scholastic works, and musty books of divinity.

It possessed two or three jaw-teeth of an elephant, and the head and horns of an elk. It is supposed they were found in the Theis. I would not so far deviate from common justice, as to relate, for anecdote sake, an ill-natured and false fact; but, if I am not much mistaken, it was here that a course of history lasted so long, that after the professor had lectured "nine years, he was not advanced further than the middle ages."

'Besides the college, Debretzin is famous for its soap manufactories, its bread, *guba* \*, and pipes, and its quarterly fairs. These are the principal sources of the opulence of its inhabitants; but the vending of justice by the members of the districtual court must not be omitted in the accurate statistic of the industry and sources of wealth of this town.' P. 238.

His account of their bread is too curious to be passed over. He says —

'Lighter, whiter, and better flavoured bread than that made here I never ate; nor did I ever see elsewhere such large loaves. Were I not afraid of being accused of taking advantage of the privilege of travellers, I should say they were near half a yard cubed. As this bread is made without yeast, about which such a hue and cry is often raised, and with a substitute which is a dry mass, that may be easily transported, and kept half a year or more, I think it may be of use to my country, for me to detail the Debretzin art of making bread. The ferment is thus made: Two good handfulls of hops are boiled in four quarts of water; this is poured upon as much wheaten bran as can be well moistened by it; to this are added four or five pounds of leaven: when this is only warm, the mass is well worked together to mix the different parts. This mass is then put in a warm place for twenty-four hours, and after that it is divided into small pieces about the size of a hen's egg or a small orange, which are dried by being placed upon a board and exposed to a dry air, but not to the sun: when dry they are laid by for use, and may be kept half a year. This is the ferment, and it is to be used in the following manner: For a baking of six large loaves, six good handfulls of these balls are taken and dissolved in seven or eight quarts of warm water. This is poured through a sieve into one end of the bread-trough, and three quarts more of warm water are poured through the sieve after it, and what remains in the sieve is well pressed out: this liquor is mixed up with so much flour as to form a mass of the size of a large loaf: this is strewed over with flour, the sieve with its contents is put upon it, and then the whole is covered up warm, and left till it has risen enough, and its surface has begun to crack: this forms the leaven.

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\* \* A kind of cloth.

Then fifteen quarts of warm water, in which six handfulls of salt have been dissolved, are poured through the sieve upon it, and the necessary quantity of flour is added, and mixed and kneaded with the leaven; this is covered up warm, and left for about an hour. It is then formed into loaves, which are kept in a warm room half an hour; and after that they are put in the oven, where they remain two or three hours according to the size. The great advantage of this ferment is, that it may be made in great quantities at a time, and kept for use. Might it not on this account be useful on board of ships, and likewise for armies when in the field?' p. 242.

We are apprehensive the doctor's good intentions will fail of being realised, from his having omitted to describe the kind of '*leaven*' made use of. Every thing he has related of the process of preparing '*the ferment*,' seems, indeed, subservient to this, and the result scarcely practicable, on the supposition that four dough, which is the leaven used among the farmers of this country, is to be employed. — Of the jurisprudence of Hungary, our readers will form no very favourable opinion when they have perused the following remarks —

'The four annual fairs bring hither a great number of strangers, and many more are brought by law-suits in the districtual court of justice held here, of which there are only four in the kingdom. Before this court the civil causes of the nobility are pleaded. Its members have the vile practice of receiving *incidents*. Are these bribes? the reader will ask. God forbid! They are only *douccurs*, to engage the judges, or the referendaries, to examine more strictly into the nature of a cause. These incidents, for I would not call them bribes for the world, form the greater part of the incomes of the members of this court. And the courts of law at Buda are not less venal; and as the causes which come before them are of greater importance, their incidents are greater.' p. 246.

From our author's account of Gross Wardein, the place he next visited, we may form some idea of the state of morals among its inhabitants —

'I visited the prisons,' (says Dr. Townson) 'and I found them but too full. The Wallachians are the most uncultivated and ferocious people of Hungary, and justice is obliged to be administered to them in all its horrors. In 1785 they rebelled in Transylvania, and with great cruelty murdered many of the nobility. Their priests, whom they call popes, are uncommonly brutish, and it is calculated that in twenty executions there is always a pope. Now, or till within a few years, the most frightful punishments were inflicted upon them, slaying, impaling, &c. &c. But the most shocking punishments I have read of, were those which were in-  
flicted

sisted on the leaders of the peasants' war in the beginning of the sixteenth century in the Banat. They are too frightful to detail. The chief, as king, was set upon a red-hot iron throne, and an iron crown was put on his head, and a sceptre of the same in his hand, both red-hot. In this state, half roasted, nine of his principal accomplices, nearly starved to death with hunger, were let loose upon him, with threats of instant death, if they did not fly upon and eat their pretended king. Six obeyed, and fell upon him and ate him. Three others who would not, were immediately cut to pieces. Yet under all this torment the unfortunate man never murmured!!' p. 256.

In the succeeding chapter, we find a concise description of the small town of Tokay; but of its celebrated vintage, a very circumstantial and entertaining account is given. It would exceed our accustomed limits, however, to enter on the subject in this place. We shall, likewise, pass our author's mineralogical remarks, not indeed as unworthy of notice, but as less interesting to the general reader.

Our author's progress from Caschau, the metropolis of Upper Hungary, to Rosenau, furnishes him fresh occasion to indulge in mineralogical disquisition. His account of two remarkable caverns in that part are amongst the most curious of the particulars he has related; but for this we must refer to the work itself.

Dr. Townson's Alpine excursions, which form the 15th chapter, will not fail to gratify the scientific reader. The three views which accompany them, illustrate the subject materially, and are tolerably well executed: and the table of barometrical measurements of the highest Alps in the county of Zips, belonging to the great chain of the Carpathian mountains, is a valuable appendage.

On the remaining contents of the volume before us, our prescribed limits will only allow us to observe, in a general way, that they are not less interesting than those parts of the work on which we have dwelt more particularly. We cannot conclude, however, without reprobating, as unbecoming the philosopher and the man of science, certain libidinous descriptions, which here and there present themselves, greatly to the offence of modesty, and in no wise indicative of a rigid moral feeling in their author. Pages 214, 234, 306, 254, and 367, afford abundant evidence of the force of our objection, but particularly the two last.

The *Entomologia* and *Regnum Vegetabile*, which compose the Appendix, include several well-executed engravings.

*The*

*The History of the Reign of George the Third, King of Great Britain, &c. from the Conclusion of the Seventh Session of the Sixteenth Parliament, in 1790, to the End of the Sixth Session of the Seventeenth Parliament of Great Britain, in 1796. By Robert Macfarlan, Esq. Vol. IV. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Evans. 1796.*

WE had occasion to speak in very respectful terms of the third volume of this history \*. The present volume, we are sorry to add, falls short of the expectations which the preceding had excited. It bears evident marks of haste, and is wanting in that correctness both of sentiment and style which the former possessed. While, in justice to the reader and to our own character as critics, we observe thus far, we must still, in justice to the author, allow, that if he has not waited to give to his production that polish and elegance which we might have expected from his former essay, his failure has still proceeded from a commendable motive, that of gratifying, by an early publication, the curiosity of the public; and if we consider that the history in this last volume is almost brought down to the very date of the publication, much allowance is to be made for casual errors either in arrangement or style.

In the few introductory pages which serve as an exordium to the history, a question of some importance is discussed: and we confess it is treated to our satisfaction, and to the advantage of the writer, and of all the historians of recent events —

\* Before the narrative commences, it may not be improper to premise, in a kind of Sallustian preface, that the insertion of the genuine parliamentary speeches in the newspapers, a practice for which the public is indebted to the hazardous perseverance of the writer of this volume, has empowered the modern British historian of his own times to boast of an authenticity, which formerly could only be expected in histories composed after the lapse of many years from various documents and adverse publications compared, contrasted and reconciled, and frequently attended at last with mere conjecture, or at most with strong probability. The struggle of political rivals extorts truth in so many shapes; the conflict of contending parties exhibits facts in such different views, and the collision of opposite interests strikes out so many sparks of light to illuminate the whole scene, that the secrets of the cabinet are no longer a mystery confined to a few select individuals, but known in a short time by the publick, as well as the ordinary proceedings in parliament. The nation being thus possessed of facts, and its mind enlightened by opposite arguments, it will be its own fault, if the mi-

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\* See *Grit. Rev. New Arr.* Vol. XI. p. 254, and Vol. XII. p. 414.



ministry carry into execution any important plan that is contrary to its interest and inclination. Was it not from this cause that the failure of Fox's East-India bill, and the delay which at last rendered the regency bill unnecessary, arose? Had the people been equally well-instructed at the commencement of the American war, had they known what came to light at its conclusion, that the expence of bounties, and of governors and officers of every description exceeded the profits of a trade, which they must necessarily retain, were America independent, would they ever have given their sanction to the war, as the war of the people? The question must be answered in the negative; and they would have saved much of the national blood, and more than a hundred millions of the publick treasure.

An attempt has, for obvious reasons, been made to give currency to an opinion that a writer cannot compose a good history of his own times, because he is likely to be uninformed and prejudiced, unacquainted with the secret springs of action, and partial to a favourite class of statesmen. This objection has already been half removed, when it was remarked that the publication of the parliamentary debates has unveiled the mysteries of the cabinet; and, were the other half, the charge of prejudice and partiality, to be allowed any degree of validity, what would become of the best historians, Sallust and Tacitus, who wrote histories 'of their own age, though the former was not in the least, and the latter but little, if at all, engaged in any of the described transactions? Just histories, as some affect to call compilations selected from various documents after a long interval of years, partaking of that languor which is apt to creep in his closet upon a recluse student remotely concerned in the subject of his narration, are often tedious, cold and uninteresting, and destitute of that dramatick interest, which constitutes the charm of ancient compositions. Here I speak as I feel. Having freely expressed my opinion of the living, why should I hesitate to deliver my sentiments concerning the dead? From this censure on general histories let me except Livy's first Decad, which, as I have admired it from my youth, I have endeavoured, but with unequal powers, to imitate; having been always careful not to record speeches, in which facts are not involved with the arguments, that the narrative and therefore the interest may never flag.' p. 2.

As a specimen of the mode in which the public transactions are reported in this volume, we select an abstract of the debates on the prince of Wales's establishment —

During the discussion of these arrangements, Grey, Lambton, Fox, and other conspicuous members, made a number of observations, from which a wise prince might derive much wholesome instruction. "However much we must be attached to the monarchy, as an indispensable branch of the constitution, we must be still more attached, as representatives of the people, to the democracy, the

broad basis of the whole fabrick. Can we then view with indifference so enormous a sum diverted from the publick service to the purposes of pomp and parade? If the prince is the pupil of the nation, they ought to train him to the practice of frugality and economy; and if the provision made for him be ample, it's intention is to make thousands bless his bounty and munificence, not curse his profusion and extravagance. Those are his worst enemies, and the vilest sycophants, who would poison his ear with the idea that the nation is bound to gratify his appetite for prodigality. These are times which demand plain language; and the minister ought not, for the sake of increasing the influence of the crown, and of procuring the support of the prince and of his household, to be so extravagantly lavish of the national treasure. The pressure of the war, the dearth of provisions, and the weight of accumulated taxes, oblige the people to retrench. When the publick wealth thus becomes daily a decreasing quantity, why should the prince of Wales's appointments be an increasing series? Show and splendor are now so common that they have lost their fascination, and dignified simplicity commands more respect. Who now would be so vulgar as to wear lace, except a musician, a mountebank, or tragick king? If the royal family must have lords and ladies of the bedchamber, why do not these titled personages rest satisfied with the honour of being so near the throne, and perform the office gratis? Men of exalted rank, and large property are degraded by the acceptance of sinecure places, and by the name of menial servants. A long train of attendants, and it's necessary consequence, an expensive table, excite indignation rather than esteem; as the meanest ploughman cannot be so dull of apprehension, as not to perceive that they are supported by the labour of his hand, and the sweat of his brow. Do you imagine that Frederick the Great was less esteemed by his subjects, because the daily expence of his table did not exceed five guineas, and that his wardrobe contained only three or four threadbare suits, and a few jack-boots? Or do you suppose that Washington, the president or elective king of America, is less revered, because his appointment is only four thousand pounds, which he does not accept? It is by such instances of frugality and self-denial that rulers secure the veneration and affection of the people, and not by an idle display of wasteful grandeur and oppressive magnificence. The prince of Wales has no publick character to sustain, and therefore is without any expensive retinue sufficiently distinguished from other peers by his guard of light dragoons. If his majesty thinks a cumbersome train of costly followers necessary for the support of his dignity, why does not he, who has certainly the means, offer a handsome yearly contribution? How come those paternal feelings, which are so much vaunted, to throw his eldest son entirely upon the charity of the nation? Had the king been well advised, he would, like queen Anne and George the Second, have advanced out of his large civil list a hundred

hundred thousand pounds for prosecuting the war of kings; and not thrown the whole weight on the shoulders of his subjects, when his allowance exceeds that of his predecessors by two hundred thousand pounds, and his privy purse is swelled from thirty-six to sixty thousand pounds. Is not this a debt of gratitude that he owes to his distressed subjects, who for the payment of his debts, at various times, advanced sums that would have now swelled to seven millions sterling, and who for his son's appanage are to be burdened with a load almost equal to the whole expence of the American government? Why might not the queen spare five thousand pounds a year out of her large allowance of fifty thousand, for an object so dear to monarchy as splendor?" p. 536.

We have already remarked that the style of this volume is less polished than that of the preceding. We have to add that it is rather affected, and somewhat bordering on the turgid. In his ardent zeal for imitating the classical historians, the author has dropped all titles, and speaks of 'Fox, Lauderdale, Lansdown, Grenville, &c. &c.' without any addition of title or distinction. On this we would observe, that the historians of every age should in these respects adapt their style to the age and manners they describe, as is judiciously done by Mr. Gibbon. 'He was born,' (says he) 'of a gentleman's family, (for we must now adopt a modern idiom).' In the ancient republics it is well known, there were no hereditary titles; but with us, lord, marquis, duke, &c. are as much a part of the man's name, to whom they apply, as John or Thomas: that is, they serve as much for the description and discrimination of the individual; for instance, 'Grenville' may either mean the noble secretary of state, or his brother who sits in the house of commons; but 'lord Grenville' immediately designates the person. This is, however, but a trifling blemish, if it be any at all; and though we cannot pronounce the work perfect in its kind, yet it forms a useful continuation of the former volumes, and will be particularly acceptable to the admirers of the present ministry, of whom our author is a warm panegyrist.

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*The Chase, and William and Helen: two Ballads, from the German of Gottfried Augustus Bürger. 4to. 3s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1796.*

IT is now about twenty years since Bürger's ballad of Leonora has been written: and in all that time, till very lately, it has not been brought before the notice of the English reader; but, as if to make amends for this long neglect, this is now the fifth translation, which in a small space of time has

been offered to the public, of that striking ballad. Nor is the present translation, which, as well as that printed at Norwich, is without a name, unworthy to rank with its predecessors in the force and effect with which it gives the sense of the original. The author has indeed availed himself of the translation first printed in the Monthly Magazine, from which he has confessedly borrowed, having heard it in MS. a stanza, and of which it is likewise evident he has availed himself, perhaps unconsciously, in many turns of expression, and in the general cast and moulding of the language. The following image of the corpse coming down from the gibbet and joining the procession, which will be considered by some as striking, by others as ludicrous, has been left out, we think, by the other translators.

" See there, see there ! What yonder swings  
And creaks 'mid whistling rain ?  
Gibbet and steel, th' accursed wheel ;  
A murd'rer in his chain.

" Hollo ! thou felon, follow here :  
To bridal bed we ride ;  
And thou shalt prance a fetter dance  
Before me and my bride,"

" And hurry, hurry ! clash, clash, clash !  
The wasted form descends ;  
And fleet as wind through hazel bush  
The wild career attends.' P. 35.

The *Chase*, another ballad from the same author, now first appears in an English dress. It thus begins —

' Earl Walter winds his bugle horn ;  
To horse, to horse, halloo, halloo !  
His fiery courser snuffs the morn,  
And thronging serfs their lord pursue.

' The eager pack, from couples freed,  
Dash through the bush, the brier, the brake ;  
While answering hound, and horn, and steed,  
The mountain echoes startling wake.' P. 1.

It was on a sabbath day, and the bell had tolled for church. Earl Walter notwithstanding rides on, when he is joined by two strange horsemen, spurring on from opposite sides —

' Who was each stranger, left and right,  
Well may I guess, but dare not tell :  
The right-hand steed was silver white,  
The left, the swarthy hue of hell.

• The

' The right-hand horseman, young and fair,  
His smile was like the morn of May;  
The left, from eye of tawny glare,  
Shot midnight lightning's lurid ray.' P. 2.

The black horseman urges him on to the sport; the fair horseman endeavours to persuade him to attend the service of the church, but in vain.—Presently a stag is roused—

' Upsprings, from yonder tangled thorn,  
A stag more white than mountain snow;  
And louder rung earl Walter's horn,  
"Hark forward, forward, holla, ho!"

' A heedless wretch has cross'd the way,—  
He gasps the thundering hoofs below;  
But, live who can, or die who may,  
Still forward, forward! on they go.

' See where yon simple fences meet,  
A field with autumn's blessings crown'd;  
See prostrate at earl Walter's feet  
A husbandman with toil embrown'd.

"O mercy! mercy! noble lord;  
Spare the hard pittance of the poor,  
Earn'd by the sweat these brows have pour'd  
In scorching July's sultry hour."

' Earnest the right-hand stranger pleads,  
The left still cheering to the prey:  
Th' impetuous earl no warning heeds,  
But furious holds the onward way.

"Away, thou hound, so basely born,  
Or dread the scourge's echoing blow!"  
Then loudly rung his bugle horn,  
"Hark forward, forward, holla, ho!"

' So said, so done—a single bound  
Clears the poor labourer's humble pale:  
Wild follows man, and horse, and hound,  
Like dark December's stormy gale.

' And man, and horse, and hound, and horn,  
Destructive sweep the field along,  
While joying o'er the wasted corn  
Fell Famine marks the madd'ning throng.' P. 5.

Earl Walter next comes to the flocks and herds of a poor widow, which, notwithstanding the prayers of the herdsman, the dogs gore and destroy. The next trial brings him to the  
cell

cell of a holy hermit. At every successive incident; the white horseman pleads with him to spare, and the black urges him on; he leads his hounds through the chapel of the hermit, and spurs his horse still furiously on; when on a sudden the whole scene vanishes; he puts his lips to his bugle horn, but cannot produce a sound; silence and darkness surround him:—at length—

‘High o’er the sinner’s humbled head  
At length the solemn silence broke;  
And from a cloud of swarthy red,  
The awful voice of thunder spoke.

“Oppressor of creation fair!  
Apostate spirits’ harden’d tool!  
Scorner of God! scourge of the poor!  
The measure of thy cup is full.

“Go, hunt for ever through the wood,  
For ever roam th’ affrighted wild;  
And let thy fate instruct the proud,  
God’s meanest creature is his child.”

‘Twas hush’d; one flash of sombre glare  
With yellow ting’d the forests brown;  
Up rose earl Walter’s bristling hair,  
And horror chill’d each nerve and bone.

‘Cold pour’d the sweat in freezing rill;  
A rising wind began to sing;  
And louder, louder, louder still,  
Brought storm and tempest on its wing.

‘The earth is rock’d, it quakes, it rends;  
From yawning rifts, with many a yell,  
Mix’d with sulphureous flames, ascend  
The misbegotten dogs of hell.

‘What ghastly huntsman next arose,  
Well may I guess, but dare not tell:  
His eye like midnight lightning glows,  
His steed the swarthy hue of hell.

‘Earl Walter flies o’er bush and thorn,  
With many a shriek of helpless woe;  
Behind him hound, and horse, and horn,  
And hark away, and holla, ho!

‘With wild despair’s reverted eye,  
Close, close behind he marks the throng,  
With bloody fangs, and eager cry;  
In frantic fear he scours along.

- ' Still shall the dreadful chafe endure  
 Till time itself shall have an end;  
 By day earth's tortured womb they scour,  
 At midnight's witching hour ascend.  
 ' This is the horn, and hound, and horse,  
 That oft the lated peasant hears;  
 Appal'd he signs the frequent cross,  
 When the wild din invades his ears.  
 ' The wakeful priest oft drops a tear  
 For human pride, for human woe,  
 When at his midnight mass he hears  
 Th' infernal cry of holla, ho!'' p. 146

We hope those who have talents and knowledge of the language sufficient for the purpose, will not rest till they have unlocked to us all the treasures of the German Parnassus.

*Sermons on practical Subjects. By the late Rev. Samuel Carr, D. D. Prebendary of St. Paul's, &c. &c. 3 Vols. 8vo. 11. 1s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1795.*

THE reputation of Dr. Carr in after life, founded upon the character he acquired in the university, could not fail to obtain a favourable reception for his sermons, under all the disadvantages of posthumous publication. Whether any, and which of them, were designed for the press by the author, there is no advertisement to inform us. Some of them, by the references annexed, appear to have been, though we cannot say that they were. All of them, however, are written with a vigour that, on a popular audience, must have been very impressive: nor would the floridness of style have lessened their applause.

The XLIIInd sermon, on 1 Tim. i. 8, will afford a pertinent specimen of the manner of the preacher, and the general character of the rest.

' And now, my brethren, having thus explained to you the words of the apostle; it only remains for me to intreat you to consider what has been said with that seriousness which the importance of the subject demands: to consider it, not as intended to please the fancy or amuse the ear, but to reform and correct the heart: not as the customary professional harangue of the preacher, but as the pure and unchangeable word of God: for his ambassadors and ministers we are, and in his name it is that we intreat you.

' Nor is it any trifling or common errand upon which I now bespeak your attention. For as, on the one hand, it is not the  
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riches of the world, the pleasures of a moment, or an earthly inheritance, which I have to offer; but it is an inheritance incorruptible and undefiled in the heavens: it is a kingdom that fadeth not away, and those pleasures which flow at God's right hand for evermore: so, on the other hand, it is not a momentary pain, the torment of an hour, anguish of body or temporal death, which I have to denounce against the sinner; but it is a death eternal, it is a torment of the soul, it is the worm that never dieth, and the fire that cannot be quenched.

And now then, life and death are before ye; chuse ye which ye will. But do not vainly imagine, that this choice will always be in your power. The gate of mercy is now indeed open; God now invites you by his ministers, by his word, by the checks of conscience and the silent impulses of his holy spirit; but how long ye will enjoy these advantages, is known only to him from whom no secrets are hid. Yet surely ye have all of you seen enough of human life, to know by how precarious a bond you hold them. Or if ye are still ignorant of this, look back to the generations of old, and learn of them. Ye who have ever lost the friend of your bosom, or have been witnesses to the expiring groans of the child ye loved, go to their silent tombs, and from them learn wisdom: like you, they probably rejoiced in the strength of youth, and vainly imagined they had many years to work out their salvation. Like you, they trode the flowery paths of pleasure, or were immersed in the busy pursuits of life, regardless of the God who gave them life. Like you, they deferred the work of repentance from day to day; like you they hoped, that the forbearance of God would always prolong their time of grace. But ah! their mouldering ashes now too plainly declare, how vain and fruitless were all their expectations.

And which of us can pretend to say, that we are more certain of life than they were. However vainly we may trust in them, it is not strength, youth, or beauty which can save us from death: the undistinguishing grave receives alike the bloom of infancy and the tottering steps of decrepid age. Nay, in the very midst of life itself we are in death: the very breath that we are now drawing is carrying away a part of our being, and bringing us nearer to the confines of the grave, and the hour of judgment.

The hour of judgment! Oh! horrible sound to those who are unprepared for its coming! Oh words of terrible import, which contain in them all the miseries which guilt can fear or human nature suffer! an exclusion from heaven, a separation from God, and ages of eternity spent in utter darkness, amidst unutterable torments.

And what then, my brethren, can hide these things from your eyes? What charm is it that hinders you from seeing your eternal welfare and being wise unto salvation? Had ye all the enjoyments



the world can afford, nay, had ye the world itself in possession, with all its empires and kingdoms, yet, when compared with the kingdom of heaven, it would appear but as the dust of the balance; and therefore, it would be madness to hesitate which ye should chuse. And is it not then the height of madness to prefer the painful enjoyments of sin, when ye have a religion offered to you, which can not only ensure that heavenly kingdom, but also the only true happiness which the present state of trial affords; a religion which has not only the promises of the life to come, but also of that which now is.

‘Come then, religion, daughter of heaven, parent of happiness, possess our hearts with thy divine influence, and make us all thy own! Too long, misguided by youth, misled by ambition, or corrupted by example, we have neglected the fear of God, we have trodden the steps of folly, we have listened to the voice of sin. But now, convinced of our danger, we fly to thee for succour, we fall as prostrate suppliants at thy altar. Teach, oh teach us, therefore, to despise the vanities of the world, to look down with pity on the slaves of ambition, to abhor the maxims of sin, to fly the wiles of temptation, and to place our happiness on objects beyond the power of fortune, beyond the reach of chance.

‘And thou, eternal providence, who dost make the heavens revolve and the insect crawl, who art watchful even over the least and lowest of thy works; oh! lend thy friendly hand to snatch us from the paths of darkness and the shadow of death! Do thou deign to receive from us that homage and submission which thou alone canst render worthy to be offered to thee! Do thou teach us to revere those virtues which thou hast condescended to instruct us in, and inspire our breasts with thy heavenly graces of innocence, peace, and contentment.

‘Thus guided by thy spirit, instructed by thy precepts, supported by thy comforts, we shall securely conduct our trembling steps through the paths of life: thus we shall joyfully resign this anxious being at the hour of death, in full confidence of receiving from thy hands the immortal crown of patience and virtue, which thou hast prepared for them that love and fear thee.’ Vol. ii. p. 358.

*The System of Nature; or, the Laws of the Moral and Physical World. Translated from the French of M. Mirabaud, one of the Forty Members of, and perpetual Secretary to, the French Academy. 4 Vols. 8vo. 11. 1s. Boards. Kearley. 1797.*

‘**L**IVE agreeable to Nature,’ is the burthen of the obscure rhetoric with which the declaimer in *Rasselas* entertains his wondering auditors; we have here a *System of Nature* that is not a whit more intelligible than the precept. This work is attributed to the voluminous M. Mirabaud; and it is said that

that the celebrated Diderot assisted in composing a considerable part of it. The author thus discloses his intentions—

‘ The sole object of this work, is to bring man back to nature, to render his reason dear to him, to make him adore virtue, to dispel those mists of prejudice that hide from him the only road that can really conduct him to that felicity he desires. These are the real views of the author; satisfied with the sincerity of his intention; he presents to the reader nothing but those ideas, which a long and serious reflection has convinced him to be absolutely necessary to the repose and happiness of man, and favourable to the progress of the human understanding. He invites the reader to an examination of his principles; and, far from having a wish to wound the sacred ties of morality, he maintains he shall strengthen them, and place virtue on those altars from which she has hitherto been driven, by imposture, enthusiasm, and religious terror, for the introduction of the most dangerous phantoms.

‘ Ready to descend into the grave, which old age has rendered probable for some time past, the author protests in the most solemn manner, to have had no other object in his labours, than to promote the good of his fellow-creatures. His only ambition is, to merit the approbation of those very few partisans of truth, and honest souls, that sincerely search after it. He writes not to those who are deaf to the voice of reason, who judge of things only by their vile interests, and fatal prejudices. His cold remains will fear neither their clamours, nor their resentments, so terrible to those, who, while living, dare announce to them the truth.’ Vol. i. p. xiv.

Notwithstanding these plausible professions, M. Mirabaud's literary reputation, and the assistance to which we have before alluded, this *legacy* to the world is neither a treasure of genius, nor wisdom. Many of the French literati, whose talents were adapted to better employment, have distinguished themselves by a sarcastic hostility to the Christian religion; but the author of the ‘System of Nature’ declares open war against every species of religious adoration, and pretends to build a beautiful and durable fabric of morality on the basis of avowed atheism! The futility of such attempts is obvious, and the mischief they have a tendency to produce in society is incalculable; for, even admitting the *speculative* possibility of constructing a permanent system of morals unconnected with any religious doctrines, yet when it is considered how intimately the morals of society have, during a long course of time, been blended and interwoven with religion, they must be bold and bad men who avow and endeavour to make proselytes to opinions, which, in their practical operation, would infallibly cut asunder all the ties of decency, morality, and order, by which the civilised part of mankind are at present connected.

The mischievous absurdity, as well as the impiety of such philosophical schemes, renders it greatly to be wished that the authors of them, instead of raising trophies to their own vanity, would employ their pens in discussions more immediately relative to the actual condition of human society, and calculated rather to correct its disorders, than to endanger its existence.

In the present work a few, and but a very few, pages are devoted to this useful purpose: we select the following passages from some judicious if not original reflections on criminal punishments —

“ If society has the right to conserve itself, it has also the right to take the means; these means are the laws, which present to the wills of men, those motives that are most suitable to deter them from committing injurious actions: these motives, can they not have any effect upon them? Society, for its peculiar good, is obliged to take from them the power of injuring it. From whatever source their actions may arise, whether they may be free, whether they may be necessary, it punishes them, when after having presented them with motives sufficiently powerful to act upon reasonable beings, it sees that these motives have not been able to vanquish the impulses of their depraved nature. It punishes them with justice, when the actions from which it dissuades them, are truly injurious to society; it has the right to punish them, when it only commands them to do, or defends them from committing those things, that are conformable or contrary to the nature of beings, associated for their reciprocal advantage. But on the other hand, the law has not the right to punish those to whom it has not presented the necessary motives to have an influence on their wills; it has not the right to punish those, whom the negligence of society has deprived of the means of subsisting, of exercising their industry and their talents, of labouring for it. It is unjust, when it punishes those to whom it has neither given education, nor honest principles, whom it has not caused to contract habits necessary to the maintenance of society. It is unjust, when it punishes them for faults, that the wants of their nature, and which the constitution of society, has rendered necessary to them. It is unjust and irrational, whenever it chastises them for having followed those propensities, which society itself, which example, which public opinion, which the institutions, conspire to give them. In short, the law is iniquitous, when it does not proportion the punishment to the real evil that they have done to society. The last degree of injustice and of folly is, when it is so blinded, as to inflict punishment on those who have served it usefully.

“ Thus the penal laws, in shewing frightful objects to men, whom they must suppose susceptible of fear, present them with motives, suitable

suitable to have an influence on their wills. The idea of pain, the privation of their liberty, of death, are for beings well constituted, and in the enjoyment of their faculties, very puissant obstacles that strongly oppose themselves to the impulsions of their unruled desires; those who are not stopped by them, are irrational beings, madmen, beings badly organized, against whom the others have a right to guarantee themselves, and place themselves in security. Madness is, without doubt, an involuntary and necessary state, nevertheless no one finds it unjust to deprive fools of their liberty, although their actions can only be imputed to the derangement of their brain. The wicked are men of whom the brain is either perpetually or transiently disturbed, we must then punish them by reason of the evil that they commit, and place them for ever in the impossibility of injuring it, if we have no hopes of ever bringing them back to a conduct conformable to the end of society.

I shall not examine here, how far the punishments that society inflicts on those who offend against it, may be able to be carried. Reason appears to indicate, that the law ought to shew, to the necessary crimes of men, all the indulgence that is compatible with the conservation of society. The system of fatalism does not leave, as we have seen, crimes unpunished, but it is at least suitable to moderate the barbarity with which a great number of nations punish the victims of their anger. This cruelty becomes yet more absurd, when experience shews the inutility of it; the habit of seeing atrocious punishments, familiarizes criminals with their idea. If it is true, that society has the right of taking away the life of its members; if it is really true, that the death of a criminal, thenceforth useless to it, can be advantageous to society, which it will be necessary to examine; humanity at least exacts that this death should not be accompanied with useless tortures, with which frequently the too rigorous laws please themselves with overloading it. This cruelty serves only to make the victim, that is immolated to the public vengeance, suffer without any advantage to itself; it moves the compassion of the spectator, and interests him in favor of the unhappy sufferer who groans under it; it imposes nothing upon the wicked, but the sight of the cruelties that are destined for him, and frequently renders him more ferocious, more cruel, more the enemy of his associates. If the example of death was less frequent, even without being accompanied with pains, it would be more important.

What shall we say to the unjust cruelty of some nations, where the laws that ought to be made for the advantage of the whole, appear only to have for object the particular security of the most powerful, and where punishments the most disproportionate to the crimes, unmercifully take away the lives of men, whom the most urgent necessity have obliged to become criminal? It is thus, that in the greater number of civilised nations, the life of a citizen is placed

in the same scales as money; the miserable wretch, who is perishing with hunger and misery, is put to death for having taken a pitiful portion of the superfluity of another, whom he sees rolling in abundance! It is this, that in enlightened societies, they call justice, or proportioning the punishment to the crime.

'This dreadful iniquity, does it not become more crying yet, when the laws and the customs decree the most cruel pains against crimes, which the bad institutions engender and multiply? Men, as we cannot too often repeat, are so prone to evil, only because every thing appears to push them on to the commission of it. Their education is void in the greater number of states, man receives from the people no other principles, than those of an unintelligible religion, which is but a very feeble barrier against the propensities of his heart. In vain, the law cries out to him to abstain himself from the goods of his neighbour; his wants cry out to him more powerfully, that he must live at the expence of the society, who have done nothing for him, and who condemn him to groan in indigence and in misery; deprived frequently of necessaries, he revenges himself by thefts, by robberies, by assassinations; at the risque of his life he seeks to satisfy either those real, or imaginary wants, which every thing conspires to excite in his heart: deprived of education he has not been taught to restrain the fury of his temperament; without ideas of decency, without any principles of honor, he engages himself to injure a country, which is only a step-mother to him; in his transports he does not even see the gibbets that attend him; beside, his desires have become too powerful, he can no longer be able to change his inveterate habits, laziness benumbs him, despair blinds him, he rushes on to death, and society punishes, with rigour, those fatal and necessary dispositions that it has given birth to in him, or at least, which it has not seasonably rooted out, and combated by the most suitable motives to give honest inclinations to his heart. Thus society frequently punishes those propensities to which society itself has given birth, or which its negligence has caused to spring up in our minds; it acts like those unjust fathers who chastise their children for those vices, which they have themselves made them contract.' Vol. ii. p. 400.

We wish it were in our power to point out similar passages; but we are sorry to remark that the greater part of the four volumes which compose this publication, are occupied with declamations against religion, and unmeaning allusions to the *laws of nature*, the *harmony of nature*, *natural impulses*, &c. &c. The author thus comprises his tenets in a few sentences, which teem with arrogance and blasphemy—

'Atheism is only so rare because every thing conspires to intoxicate man, from his most tender age, with a dazzling enthusiasm, or to puff him up with a systematic and arranged ignorance, which is of

of all ignorance the most difficult to vanquish and to root out. Theology is nothing more than a science of words, which by dint of repeating we accustom ourselves to substitute for things; as soon as we are disposed to analyze them, we find that they do not present us with any true sense. There are very few men in the world who think, who render themselves an account of their ideas, and who have penetrating eyes; justness of mind is one of the rarest gifts which nature bestows on the human species. Too lively an imagination, a precipitate curiosity, are as powerful obstacles to the discovery of truth, as too much phlegm, as a slow conception, as indolence of mind, as the want of a thinking habit. All men have, more or less, imagination, curiosity, phlegm, bile, indolence, activity, it is from the just equilibrium, which nature has observed in their organization, that justness of mind depends. Nevertheless, as we have heretofore said, the organization of man is subject to change, and the judgment of his mind varies with the changes which his machine is obliged to undergo: from thence those almost perpetual revolutions which take place in the ideas of mortals, above all, when there is a question concerning those of objects upon which experience does not furnish them with any fixed basis whereon to support them.<sup>9</sup> Vol. iv. p. 661.

The illiberality and injustice of confounding the abuses with the essence of religion has been too often and too ably exposed, to require more than our general censure on the tendency of such reflections. Before the advocates for atheism can hope to make converts among truly sensible men, they must offer some system which contains more reason, happiness, and hope, than that they seek to destroy, instead of substituting a jargon which might be derided for its folly and incoherence, were it not to be dreaded for the lurking mischief with which it is pregnant.

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*James the Fatalist and his Master. Translated from the French of Diderot. 3 Vols. Small 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.*

THE character which we gave of Diderot and his writings on a former occasion\*, will in a great measure apply to the publication that now lies before us. Diderot, we intimated, was a professed imitator of the English writers; and it is easy to see that in the present *jeu d'esprit* he has had Tristram Shandy in view. There is also somewhat of the spirit of Voltaire's romances discernible in this; but, after all, the body of the work seems to be made up of anecdotes which were

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XIX. p. 420.

current in the polite circles at Paris ; and we suspect that under feigned names some actual facts are narrated. In this view the publication will afford entertainment, and probably satisfaction, to many readers, as exhibiting a very lively picture of that general corruption of principle, and horrid dissoluteness of conduct, which pervaded all the higher classes of society under the old despotism of France. It will certainly afford a very strong argument in favour of republicanism, if it should be found, after a lapse of twenty or thirty years, that, under the new order of things, the manners of the French nation are mended. — Virtue, probity, and independence of spirit, ought to be the natural effects and consequences of liberty ; and though we cannot approve of the means by which the change has been wrought, a greater equality of conditions has been established in France, by the violence with which the revolution has been effected. Thus good may eventually come out of evil, since there is no greater corruptor of morals than too large a portion of property resting in the hands of a few, especially if those few are invested with peculiar privileges. To this cause was superadded the despotism of the government ; for the use of *lettres-de-cachet*, and other arbitrary modes of imprisonment, seem to have produced in the modern nobility of France a baseness of spirit and a servility of manners, which was not known under the feudal regimen, when the nobles were in a more independent state. In a word, there could not exist a more depraved race of men than the majority of the French *noblesse* ; and this depravity must in no inconsiderable degree be attributed to the gross corruption of the government.

That these observations are not a digression from the matter of the publication before us, will appear from the following narrative. — The work is carried on in the form of a dialogue between James and his master ; and the latter relates, as follows, the mode in which he was entrapped by a right honourable swindler. — The narrator had just announced a splendid entertainment to be given by his mistress at his expense, and thus proceeds —

‘ It was the eve of her entertainment, and I had no money. The chevalier de St. Ouin, my intimate friend, never was embarrassed by any thing. You have no money, said he to me ? — No. — Well ! you must get some. — And do you know how I can get it ? — Certainly. — He dressed himself, we went out, and he conducted me through several streets to a small obscure house where we ascended by a little stair-case to the third floor, on which we entered into a spacious apartment, singularly furnished. Among other things there were three chests of drawers in the front, all of a different

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rent fashion; behind that which stood in the middle, there was a large mirror, the top of which was too high for the ceiling, so that a foot of the mirror was concealed by these drawers; upon the drawers were exposed goods of every kind; there were two pair of tables; round the apartment were placed some very handsome chairs but not one like another; at the foot of a bed without curtains was a superb duchess; in one of the windows an aviary quite new without birds; at the other window a lustre suspended by a broom stick which was supported at the ends by the backs of two old chairs with straw bottoms; on the right and on the left were pictures, some fixed to the wall, others piled up.

'*James.* This man seems as if he served the country for a league round.

'*Master.* You have guessed it. The chevalier and M. le Brun (this was the name of our broker and usurer) flew into one another's arms . . . Oh! is it you, M. le chevalier?—Yes, it is I, my dear le Brun. — But what has become of you for this age, since I saw you last? The times are very bad, are they not?—Very bad indeed, my dear le Brun. But that is not the business in hand; hark ye, I have a word to speak to you . . . — I sat down, the chevalier and le Brun retired into a corner and conversed. I cannot tell you their conversation, excepting a few detached words which I overheard . . . Is he good?—Excellent. Of age?—More than of age. — And the elder son?—Yes. — Do you know that our two last affairs . . . . Speak lower. — The father?—Rich. — Old?—And frail. — Le Brun, in a higher tone of voice: hold, M. le chevalier, I do not wish to meddle in these matters, they are always attended with troublesome consequences. He is your friend, no doubt, and the gentleman has a respectable look; but . . . — My dear le Brun!—I have no money. — But you have acquaintances!—They are all rogues, scurvy knaves. M. le chevalier, are you not tired of passing through such hands?—Necessity has no law. — The necessity by which you are pressed is a pleasant necessity, an intrigue, a party of pleasure, some girl . . . My dear friend! . . . — I am still the same, I am as weak as a child; and then you are so insinuating in your manner that I believe there is nobody in the world whom you could not prevail upon to engage in your service, in spite of oaths to the contrary. Come, ring the bell then, that I may know if Fourgeot be at home . . . . No, do not ring, Fourgeot will take you to Merval. — Why cannot you do it?—I do it! I swear this vile Merval would do nothing, either for me or my friends. You must answer for the gentleman, who perhaps, who certainly is, an honest man; I must answer for you to Fourgeot, and Fourgeot must answer for me to Merval . . . — In the mean while the maid servant came in, demanding, if he chose to be at home to M. Fourgeot. — Le Brun, to the servant: no, there is no person at home . . .



M. le chevalier, I will not, absolutely I will not. — The chevalier embraces and caresses him : my dear le Brun, my dear friend ! . . . I drew near, joining my entreaties to those of the chevalier ; M. le Brun ! my dear sir ! . . . — Le Brun allowed himself to be persuaded. The servant, who smiled at this mummery, retires, and in a twinkling, shows up a little lame fellow dressed in black, with a cane in his hand ; he stuttered in his conversation, his countenance was lean and shrivelled, his eye piercing. The chevalier turns to him and says : Come, Mr. Matthew Fourgeot, we have not a moment to lose, conduct us without delay . . . Fourgeot, without seeming to pay any attention, unties a small shammy purse. The chevalier to Fourgeot ; by no means, that belongs to us . . . I drew near, I pulled out a crown which I passed to the chevalier, who gives it to the servant, at the same time, chucking her under the chin. In the mean while, le Brun said to Fourgeot : I forbid it, do not conduct these gentlemen thither. — Fourgeot : M. le Brun, wherefore ? — He is a knave, a rank knave. — I know very well that Mr. Merval . . . but there is mercy for every sin ; and besides I know no person but him, who has money at the moment. — Le Brun ! Mr. Fourgeot, do as you please ; gentlemen, I wash my hands of it. — Fourgeot to le Brun : M. le Brun, will not you come with us ? — Le Brun ; I go with you ! God preserve me ! he is an infamous fellow, whom I never will see again while I live. — Fourgeot ; but without you we can do nothing. — Chevalier ; it is true. Come, my dear le Brun, it will be doing me a favour, it will be obliging a generous man who is in difficulty ; you will not refuse me ; you will . . . Le Brun ; I go to Merval's ! I ! I go ! — Chevalier ; yes, you will go for my sake . . . —

‘ By the dint of sollicitation, le Brun was prevailed on, and le Brun, the chevalier, Matthew de Fourgeot, and I set out ; the chevalier, by the way, taking le Brun in a friendly manner by the hand, and saying to me, He is the best man in the world, a most obliging man, the best acquaintance . . . — Le Brun ; I believe that M. le chevalier could make me coin money . . . — At length we arrive at Merval's. —

‘ *James.* Matthew de Fourgeot . . .

‘ *Master.* Well ; what do you intend to say ?

‘ *James.* Matthew de Fourgeot . . . I mean to say that M. le chevalier de Saint-Ouin knew these people by name and surname, and that there was a kind of scoundrel understanding among all this crew.

‘ *Master.* You may be right . . . It is impossible to find a more pleasant, more civil, more genteel, more polite, more humane, more compassionate, more disinterested man than Mr. Merval. My age of majority and my solvency being proved, Mr. Merval assumed a mingled air of affection and concern, and told us, in a tone of regret, he was extremely vexed that no later than this morning

morning he had been obliged to assist one of his friends who was in a situation of the most urgent necessity, and that he was quite aground. Then addressing himself to me, he added; sir, do not distress yourself because you did not come sooner. I should have been sorry to have refused you, but I must have done it, for friendship with me takes precedence of every thing . . .— We were all much surprised; the chevalier, le Brun, and even Fourgeot, fell down, at Merval's knees, whilst Merval said to them: Gentlemen, you all know me, I love to oblige, and I endeavour not to spoil the services which I do by performing them in consequence of solicitation; but, upon the honour of a man, there are not four louis in the house . . .

‘ As for me, I stood in the midst of these people like a criminal who had heard his sentence. I said to the chevalier; Chevalier, let us go, since these gentlemen can do nothing . . . The chevalier, pulling me aside, replied, You do not recollect it is the eve of her entertainment. I have given her notice, remember, and she expects a display of gallantry on your part. You know her; it is not that she is selfish; but she is like every body else, she does not relish being disappointed in her expectations. She is now, perhaps, boasting to her father and mother, her aunts and her friends; and, after all, to have nothing to shew them would be truly mortifying. . . . He then turned to Merval, and became more pressing than ever.

‘ Merval, after they had got him to draw his purse, says, I am the greatest fool in the world, I cannot see people in difficulty. Well, I think there is an idea which strikes me—Chevalier: What idea?—Why not take some goods?—Chevalier: Have you any?—No; but I am acquainted with a woman who will furnish you with some; an excellent woman, an honest woman.—Le Brun; aye, but she will furnish us with a parcel of rags, for which we must pay their weight in gold, and which will bring us nothing in return.—Merval: no, indeed; very fine things, gold and silver trinkets, silk stuffs of all kinds, pearls, jewels; there will be very little loss upon such effects. She is a good creature, and contented with a small profit provided she has sureties; these are goods which bring her a very high price. You may, at least, look at them, the sight will cost you nothing . . . —I represented to Merval and to the chevalier, that I was not in the way of merchandizing, and that, though this arrangement was not disagreeable to me, my situation would not permit me to avail myself of the advantages to be derived from it. The obliging le Brun and Matthew Fourgeot said both at once; let not this be any impediment, we will dispose of them for you, it is only the business of half a day . . . The business at Merval's house was adjourned till the afternoon, and Merval, tapping me upon the shoulder, said in a soft and penetrating tone: sir, I am delighted in having it in my power

to oblige you, but take my advice and make few such loans, they always end in ruin. It will be a wonder if ever you fall into the hands of such honest persons as Messrs. le Brun and Matthew Fourgeot . . . Le Brun and Fourgeot Matthew, or Matthew Fourgeot, made a bow, thanked him, and said that he was very good; that they had always endeavoured, in the little commerce which they had with the world, to act agreeably to the dictates of their conscience, and that upon this account they had no claim to praise.—Merval: I beg your pardon, gentlemen, for who is there now that has any conscience? Ask M. le chevalier de St. Ouin who must know something of these matters . . . We left Merval's, who asked at the top of the stair case if he might depend upon us, to give notice to his female acquaintance. We replied that he might, and went at four to dine at a neighbouring tavern till the hour of meeting arrived.

‘It was Matthew Fourgeot who ordered the dinner, and he ordered a good one. While we are at the desert, two young wenches came to our table with their cymbals; le Brun made them sit down. We made them drink, talk, and play. While my three guests were amusing themselves in tumbling about one of them, her companion, who was sitting beside me, said in a low tone of voice: Sir, you are in very bad company, there is not one of these people whose name is not in the red book.

‘We left the tavern at the hour appointed, and repaired to Merval's. I forgot to tell you that this dinner emptied both my purse and the chevalier's, and that by the way le Brun told the chevalier, who informed me, that Matthew Fourgeot demanded ten louis for his commission; that it was the least we could give him; that if he was satisfied with us we should get the goods at the lowest price, and that we might easily make this sum upon the sale.

‘We arrived at Merval's, where his merchant had gone before us with her goods. Mademoiselle Bridioie (this was her name) loaded us with politeness and honours, and shewed us some stuffs, linen, lace, rings, diamonds, and gold boxes. We took a part of every thing. Le Brun, Matthew Fourgeot, and the chevalier, put the value upon the different articles, and Merval held the pen. The total amounted to nineteen thousand, seven hundred, and seventy-five livres, for which I was going to give my note, when mademoiselle Bridioie said to me, making a courtesy at the same time (for she never addressed any person without making her honours): sir, you propose to pay your notes when they become due?—Certainly, I answered.—In this case, replied she, it is matter of indifference to you whether you give your notes or bills of exchange.—At the word bills of exchange I grew pale. The chevalier perceiving it said to mademoiselle Bridioie; bills of exchange, mademoiselle! but these bills circulate and there is no saying into what hands they may fall.—You are mistaken, M. le chevalier,

said

said she, I am not so ignorant of the respect we owe to persons of your rank . . . And then a courtesy . . . I keep these papers in my pocket book and never produce them, except at the time of payment. Hold, see . . . another courtesy . . . Then taking her pocket book out of her pocket she read a number of names of persons of all ranks and conditions. The chevalier came up to me, and said : bills of exchange ! this is devilish serious ! Resolve upon what you mean to do. This woman appears to me to be honest ; and before the period of payment, you or I will be in cash.

‘ *James.* And you signed bills of exchange ?

‘ *Master.* I did.

‘ *James.* It is usual for fathers when their children set out for the capital, to give them a short sermon. Do not frequent bad company ; render yourselves agreeable to your superiors by a punctual performance of your duty ; preserve your religion ; avoid dissolute women and sharpers ; but, above all, never sign bills of exchange.

‘ *Master.* As you may suppose I was not better than my neighbours, the first thing that I forgot was my father’s lesson. I was provided with goods to sell, but we were in want of money. The chevalier took some pairs of very fine lace ruffles at prime cost, telling me at the same time : this is one part of your property disposed of without any loss. Matthew Fourgeot took a watch and two gold boxes, the value of which he was immediately to bring me. Le Brun deposited the rest of the effects in his house. I put in my pocket a very handsome robe with trimmings ; this was one of the flowers of the bouquet which I meant to present to my mistress. Matthew Fourgeot returned, in a twinkling, with sixty louis, he kept ten for himself and I received the other fifty. He told me that he had neither sold the watch nor the two boxes, but that he had put them in pawn.

‘ *James.* In pawn ?

‘ *Master.* Yes.

‘ *James.* I know where.

‘ *Master.* Where ?

‘ *James.* At miss Courtesy la Bidoie’s.

‘ *Master.* You are right. Along with the trimmings and the robe, I took also a handsome ring, with a patch box inlaid with gold. I had fifty louis in my purse, and the chevalier and I set out in a style of the highest gaiety.

‘ *James.* This is all very well. There is only one thing which I am puzzled to account for, the disinterestedness of Master le Brun ; did he get no part of the spoil ?

‘ *Master.* Come, come, James, you are mistaken, you do not know M. le Brun. I begged to be grateful to him for his good offices ; he was angry, and replied that I seemed to take him for a

Matthew

Matthew Fourgeot ; that he had never been a beggar. Ah ! my dear le Brun, cried the chevalier, is still the same ; but we should be sorry to be out done in generosity . . . And saying that, he took from amongst our goods two dozen of handkerchiefs and a piece of muslin, which he tendered to his acceptance as a present to his wife and daughter. Le Brun, after inspecting the handkerchiefs which were very beautiful and the muslin which was exceedingly fine, and considering that they had been offered with so good a grace, as well as the opportunity which he should soon have of recompensing us by the sale of the goods which still remained in his hands, suffered himself to be prevailed upon to accept them ; we set out and drove full speed in a hackney coach to the house of the lady with whom I was in love, and for whom the robe, the trimmings, and the ring were intended. The present succeeded to a wonder. Every thing was charming ; she immediately tried on the robe and the trimmings ; the ring seemed as if it had been made for her finger. We supped in an elegant style, as you may well suppose. Vol. iii. P. 78.

After some repetitions of the same kind of knavery —

‘ One day the chevalier proposed an excursion by ourselves. We went to spend the day in the country. We set out early. We dined at an inn, and staid supper ; the wine was excellent, we drank plentifully, talking of government, religion, and gallantry. Never had the chevalier testified for me so much confidence and friendship. He recounted all the adventures of his life with incredible frankness, concealing neither the good nor the bad. He drank, he embraced me, he wept with tenderness. I drank, I embraced him, I shed tears in my turn. There was only a single action in his past conduct with which he could reproach himself, and the remorse of which he would carry with him to his grave. — Come, chevalier, said I, unburthen your mind to a friend, it will afford you ease. What is the matter ? What peccadillo is this of which your delicacy exaggerates the importance ? — No, no, exclaimed the chevalier, leaning his head upon his hands, and concealing his face with shame, it is an enormity, an unpardonable enormity. Could you have believed it ? I, the chevalier de Saint-Quin, have once deceived . . . . . deceived, yes, deceived his friend ! — And how ? — Alas, we both of us frequented the same house, like you and me. There was in the family a young lady, like mademoiselle Agatha ; he was in love with her, and I possessed her affections. He ruined himself in expences to gain her, while I enjoyed her favours. I never had the courage to make the confession to him, but if we should again meet I will tell him all. This dreadful secret, which I bear in the recesses of my heart, weighs me down. It is a burden of which I must absolutely be delivered. — Chevalier, you will act right. — You advise me to do so ? —

Assuredly

Assuredly I do. — And how do you imagine my friend must receive the confession? — If he is your friend; if he is just, he will find your excuse in himself; he will be affected by your candour and your repentance, he will throw his arms round your neck, he will do what I, myself, should do in his situation. — You believe so? — I do. — And this is the manner in which you would treat him? — I have no doubt of it . . . — At this instant the chevalier rose, advanced to me with tears in his eyes, his arms spread, and said: My friend, then embrace me. — What, chevalier, said I, it is you? it is I? it is that devil Agatha? — Yes, my friend, I again liberate you from your word, you have it in your power to treat me as you please. If you think as I do, that my offence admits of no excuse, refuse me your pardon, rise, quit me, never again behold me but with contempt, and abandon me to my grief and to my shame. Ah! my friend, did you know all the empire which that little profligate has usurped over my heart! I was born virtuous; judge then how much I have suffered from the performance of the unworthy part to which I have been degraded. How often have I turned my eyes from her to fix them upon you, groaning for her treachery and my own! It is most wonderful that you never perceived it . . . All this time I remained as unmoveable as a statue; but when I had heard the whole speech of the chevalier, I exclaimed, Ah! base! base chevalier! you, you my friend? — Yes, I was your friend, and still I am so, since, to extricate you from the chains of this creature, I dispose of a secret which is more hers than mine. What completes my regret is that you never have obtained any favour which could compensate for what you have done to gain possession of her. (*Here James began to laugh and whistle.*)

But there is truth in the wine of Cossé . . . Reader, you do not know what you say. From an anxiety to display your wit, you only shew your imbecility. There is so little truth in the wine, that, on the contrary, there is falsehood in the wine. I have said a rude thing to you; I am sorry for it, and I ask your pardon.

*Master.* My resentment subsided by degrees. I embraced the chevalier, he sat down again on his chair, his elbows leaning upon the table, his hands covering his eyes. He durst not look at me.

*James.* He was so afflicted, and you had the goodness to console him? . . . . (*here James whistled again.*)

*Master.* The conduct which appeared to me the best, was to turn the affair into jest. At every gay observation I made, the chevalier, confounded, said to me; There is not another man in the world like you. You are perfectly singular. You are infinitely superior to me. I doubt whether I should have possessed the generosity or the force of mind to pardon you such an injury, and you treat it as a subject of pleasantry. This is without example. My friend, what can I ever do to repair my crime? . . . Ah! no, no,

'his can admit of no reparation. Never, never, shall I forget either my crime or your indulgence, they are two traits deeply engraved upon my heart. I will recall the one to excite a detestation of myself, the other to inspire an admiration of you, and to redouble the attachment to you with which I am penetrated.—Come, chevalier, you do not consider the matter rightly, you exaggerate both your own conduct and mine. Let us drink your health. Mine then, chevalier, since you will not hear of your own . . . By degrees the chevalier recovered his spirits. He recounted to me all the details of his treachery, loading himself with the most odious epithets. He tore in pieces the daughter, the mother, the father, the aunts and the whole family, whom he represented as a miscreant crew, unworthy of me, but very worthy of him; these were his own words.' Vol. iii. p. 133.

'Saying this, the chevalier seized a knife, which lay upon the table, untied his collar, opened his shirt, and, his eyes glaring wildly, placed the point of the knife at the bottom of the left collar bone, seeming only to wait my command to dispatch himself in the manner of antiquity.—That is out of the question, chevalier, lay down that ugly knife.—I will not quit it; it is what I deserve, give the signal.—Lay down that ugly knife, I say, I do not value the expiation at so high a price, I do not . . . All this time the point of the knife was suspended upon the left collar bone. I seized his hand, I tore from him the knife which I threw away, then, taking his glass and filling a bumper, I said: Let us first take a glass, and then you shall know what terrible condition I annex to your pardon. Agatha then is very liquorish, eh! very voluptuous?—Ah! my friend, do you not know it as well as I do!—But stop, we must have a bottle of Champagne, and then you shall give an account of one of your nights. Charming traitor, your absolution follows the conclusion of that account. Come, begin, what! do not you understand me?—I do understand you.—Does my sentence appear to you too severe?—No.—You are pensive.—I am.—What did I ask of you?—The description of one of my nights with Agatha!—Just so . . . Meanwhile the chevalier, after measuring me with his eye from head to foot, said to himself: He is of the same size, nearly the same age, and, if there should be a little difference, in the dark, her imagination being prepossessed with the idea that it is me, she will entertain no suspicion . . . —But, chevalier, of what are you thinking? your glass remains full and you do not begin!—I am thinking, my friend; I have thought of it, it is all decided; embrace me, we shall be revenged, we shall. It is a piece of villainy on my part; if it is unworthy of me, it is not unworthy to be practised against that little devil. You ask me for the account of one of my nights?—Yes; is it to demand too much?—But if instead of the account I should procure you the night?

night? — That were better still. — (*James falls a whistling.*) Without more ado the chevalier pulls two keys out of his pocket, the one small, the other large, saying, the small one is the key of the street door, the large one is that of the antichamber of Agatha; there they are; they are both at your service. I will tell you my mode of proceeding for about six months, to which you will accommodate yours. Her windows are in front as you know. I walk about in the street till I see them lighted. A flower pot, placed on the outside, is the signal agreed upon; then I approach the outer door; I open it and enter; I shut it and go up stairs as softly as I can. I turn by the little passage upon the right, where I find a small wax taper, by the light of which I undress myself at my ease. Agatha leaves the door of her room half open, I pass and repair to her bed. Do you comprehend this? — Very well! — As there are people sleep near us we remain silent. — And then I suppose you have something better to do than to talk. — In case of accident I can leap out of bed and shut myself up in the dressing-room, this however was never necessary. Our ordinary practice is to separate about four o'clock in the morning. When pleasure or repose induces us to prolong the period, we rise together. She goes down stairs, I dress myself, I read, or repose, waiting till the time arrives when I may appear. I go down stairs, and embrace her as though I had just come in. — And are you expected to night? — I am expected every night. — And will you resign me your place? — With all my heart. That you will prefer the night to the description, I have no doubt, but what I should wish, is that. . . — Go on, there are few things which I do not feel sufficient courage to attempt to oblige you. — And this is that you should remain in her arms till day. I will come and surprise you. — Oh, no! chevalier, that will be too bad. — Too bad? Oh, no, not so bad as you may imagine. In the first place I will undress myself in the wardrobe. — Come, come, chevalier, the devil is in you. Besides this is impossible. If you give me the keys they cannot be returned to procure you admittance. — Ah! my friend, how dull you are! — Not in this case, methinks. — And why cannot we enter both together? You may go to Agatha, whilst I remain in the wardrobe till you make the signal agreed on. — Upon my faith, this is so pleasant, so whimsical, that I am almost induced to consent. But, chevalier, all things well considered, I should like better to reserve this piece of humour for one of the following nights. — Ah! I understand. Your plan is to avenge yourself more than once. — Ay, with, your consent? — I agree most willingly.

Vol. iii. P. 144.

The chevalier and James's master arrived at Paris. The latter dressed himself in the chevalier's clothes. It is midnight; they are now under Agatha's windows; the light is extinguished; the flower-



pot appears. They take another turn along the street, the chevalier inculcating his lesson upon his friend. They approach the door; the chevalier opens it, introduces James's master, keeps the key of the street door, gives him the key of the passage, again closes the outer door, departs, and after this little detail related very laconically, James's master continued:

'The place was familiar to me. I mount upon tiptoe, I open the door of the passage, I shut it again. I enter the wardrobe, where I find the little wax taper, I undress myself; the door of the room was half open; I pass on, proceed to the alcove bed where Agatha was awake. I open the curtains, and immediately I feel two naked arms thrown round my neck, and drawing me forwards; I follow; I get into bed, am loaded with caresses, which I return. Conceive me then the happiest of mankind. Again I renew my happiness, when . . . Vol. iii. p. 153.

'When suddenly the passage door flew open. The room was instantly filled with a crowd of people, who walked about tumultuously. I perceived light, and heard the voices of men and women speaking confusedly. The curtains were forcibly thrown open, and I discovered the father, the mother, the aunts, the cousins; male and female, and a commissary, who gravely addressed them: Gentlemen and ladies, no noise; the offence is flagrant; the gentlemen is a man of honour; there is only one way of repairing the mischief, and the gentleman will prefer embracing it himself rather than be constrained to it by the law . . . At these words, he was interrupted by the father and mother, who loaded me with reproaches; by the aunts and the female cousins, who directed against Agatha epithets the least ceremonious, who, meanwhile, had wrapped herself up in the bed clothes. I was stupified, and knew not what to say. The commissary, addressing himself to me, said ironically; Sir, you are very comfortable; but you must nevertheless think proper to ~~use~~ *undress* and dress yourself . . . which I accordingly did, but in my own clothes, which had been substituted for those of the chevalier. A table was placed, and the commissary set about drawing up a state of the proceedings. Meanwhile the mother affected to storm so much, that she was held by four persons, to prevent her from beating her daughter; and the father said to her, Softly, my dear, softly; for indeed if you were to beat your daughter, you would not mend the matter; every thing will be settled for the best . . . The other personages were dispersed upon chairs, in the different attitudes of grief, indignation and resentment. The father, scolding his wife continually, said to her, See the consequences of not watching over the conduct of your daughter . . . The mother replied: with an air so good and so virtuous, who could have believed it of this gentleman? . . . The rest kept silence.

The account of the circumstances being drawn up, it was read to me, and, as it contained nothing but the truth, I subscribed to it, and went down stairs with the commissary, who very obligingly asked me to step into a carriage that was at the door, from whence I was conducted with a numerous retinue to the prison of Fort-l'Evêque.' Vol. iii. p. 198.

*The Battle of Eddington; or, British Liberty. A Tragedy.*  
8vo. 1s. 6d. Elmly. 1796.

**T**HIS play, dedicated to Mr. Pitt, is professedly written with a political view. The great Alfred, so deservedly the favourite of his countrymen, and who is very justly held up as a model to all sovereigns, is supposed to be not only engaged in resisting the Danes, but the plots of his subjects.

' They hold their meetings, and they when their daggers.  
Not all the qualities that grace your king,  
His spotless virtue, or his public spirit;  
Not all his wisdom can unite the people.' p. 22.

We are told of the necessary inconvenience of *juries* and *free laws*—

' Whose lenity, tho' wise, oft screens the guilty,  
And renders odious the firm foes of treason,  
Yet do they not regard it.' p. 20.

And again—

' ——— thanks to the old spirit  
Of Saxon liberty, whose nicety brooks not  
That summary conviction which denies  
The respite I enjoy.' p. 35.

In a dialogue between Alfred and his queen Elstha, the question is canvassed, how far it is right to prosecute an unfortunate war—

' Base is the ruler, if, while hope remains,  
He leaves his country threat'ned by a foe;  
But if his steady zeal be known to all,  
And lawless violence alone prevail  
By force of numbers, or the wrongs of fortune,  
Then he may quit, without a blush, the contest;  
Then foreign kings receive him with respect,  
And all their subjects, when they see, applaud him.' p. 54.

Again, after an eulogium on the Britons—

' Dauntless in war, but mild and just in peace'—

Elstha says—

' *Elf.* Whate'er the valued qualities they boast,  
They cannot prosper, when by their misfortunes  
Heaven plainly seems unfriendly to their cause.

' *Alf.* 'Twill be the duty, then, of noble souls  
To leave an high example of their firmness  
To future times; to brave superior power  
Even at the price of life, and be the last  
To flatter pride, and to submit to wrong.

' *Elf.* This were resistance to the Almighty's will.

' *Alf.* No; rather say, 'twere a devout submission  
To that great trial of our faith and valour  
Th' Almighty has impos'd on us: nor think,  
Elstitha, virtue can be chang'd by fortune.  
Oft, o'er the field, in which the patriot strives  
For blameless victory, do gazing angels,  
Forewarn'd of his inevitable fate,  
Shed their celestial tears, and, when he falls,  
They venerate the spot as holy ground.' p. 56.

We have noticed these passages, because we fear, if these and similar strokes do not give an interest to the piece, there is little in it as a dramatic work to excite notice. It seems to have been acted at the summer theatre in the Hay-market, if we rightly understand the author. *Letters on the Drama* are added, in which Mr. Penn shows himself a great partisan for the strict observation of the unities, and for the introduction of a chorus,—without, however, insisting upon its being constantly on the stage, after the manner of the Greeks. His own piece is diversified with pieces of lyric poetry, or, to speak plain English, with *songs*, which we think have a good effect.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### POLITICAL, &c.

*Agrarian Justice, opposed to Agrarian Law, and to Agrarian Monopoly. Being a Plan for meliorating the Condition of Man, by creating in every Nation a National Fund, to pay to every Person, when arrived at the Age of Twenty-one Years, the Sum of Fifteen Pounds Sterling, to enable him or her to begin the World: and also, Ten Pounds Sterling per Annum during Life to every Person now living of the Age Fifty Years, and to all others when they shall arrive at that Age, to enable them to live in Old Age without Wretchedness, and go decently out of the World.* By Thomas Paine. 8vo. 3d. Williams. 1797.

**S**TRONG assertions, bold truths, and strange misrepresentations, blended together in the author's usual manner. In his Preface, he promises to take notice of the bishop of Llandaff's Answer to his

**Age of Reason:** a circumstance at which we rejoice, from a full conviction, that, the greatest latitude being given to inquiry, the cause of infidelity must hourly decline. He accuses the bishop also of an error in asserting that God made both rich and poor: and this error, he says, led him to compose the treatise before us —

‘The error contained in this sermon, determined me to publish my *Agrarian Justice*. It is wrong to say that God made rich and poor; he made only male and female; and he gave them the earth for their inheritance.’ p. iv.

Now there is, without proper developement, a mixture of error in the assertions both of our author and the bishop. It is true that God made rich and poor: he created good and evil: he is, in one sense, the author of every thing on the earth and in the world. But it is by no means true that the fate of the poor in any country is irrecoverably fixed by God: on the contrary, it is the evident design of the parent of all good, that every evil, attached to the difference of conditions, should be removed; and the time, doubtless, will come, when, though inequality can never, nor ought it to be removed from rational beings, that inequality will be for the mutual advantage of all parties.

Our author is right in saying that God made only male and female, and gave the earth as an inheritance to them and their posterity. The scriptures are full of this grand sentiment. But the natural consequence of making male and female, and giving to them this earth, was, that there would be inequality in the condition of their posterity, because the produce of the earth is various, and the powers of mind and body of the sons of Adam are varied without limit.

Our author starts a doubt whether civilisation is preferable to savage life. He aggravates the evils of the former, and says nothing of those of the latter. He recommends to us the life of the savages in North America, and tells us, that —

‘There is not, in that state, any of those spectacles of human misery which poverty and want present to our eyes in all the towns and streets of Europe.’ p. 5.

But he forgets to remind us of the miseries of the savage tribe, when they fail in hunting, — when they leave their aged parents to perish, — when the sick person is forsaken. He tells us that the life of an Indian is a continual holiday. On the contrary, all accounts agree in this, that they have, either too much work or too much play, — that they know no moderation, — that they waste, with the utmost thoughtlessness, the provisions for a future day, and indulge in passions which the meanest person in civilised life learns to keep within bounds.

Let us compare the savage with the state of the civilised man. We agree with our author that civilised life presents to us spectacles

of misery, which are disgraceful. In the city of London, we daily pass objects which distress us: we know that they are a disgrace to civilisation, because it should be the object of civilisation to remove them. Thus, let the rich merchants and traders of London take a walk through the various alleys and courts within a mile of Spitalfields church, and compare them with Finsbury square; and then ask their own minds whether such things ought to be;—whether, on the contrary, a very little expense would not gradually meliorate that part of the town; and by attending to the dwellings and accommodations of the poor, you will soon accustom them to habits of cleanliness, and remove their squalid appearance. But because all the advantages are not yet reaped from civilised life which it is calculated to promote, shall we be such fools as to make all men ignorant, squalid, savage, barbarous? Let us, on the contrary, join in pointing out the defects, and promoting remedies to them. Instead of the impracticable scheme of Agrarian Justice, let us call on the wealth of the city of London, to exert itself in useful purposes; and we will venture to say, that, in the district we have alluded to, there are sufficient objects for the benevolence of the Exchange. A few merchants, subscribing no great sum, might make a street, where there is now nothing but filth and dirt: the houses would let well,—would be well tenanted,—and by degrees, instead of being the resort of thieves and pick-pockets, it would become a respectable neighbourhood.

To the plan of giving every person arrived at the age of maturity a certain sum to begin the world with, we can have no objection: but we believe that the number of persons to accept it, would be much smaller than our author supposes; and the number of those in the decline of life, to accept the beneficence of the public, would be small also, because men in general have a repugnance to accept from the bounty of others what they can procure for themselves. In every state there are faults to be corrected: and the aim of every one should be to encourage, as much as possible, a spirit of industry and independence in the people. The plan of our author has evidently an opposite tendency: and if we invert the title of his book, we should come nearer to its proper character.

*Effects of Slavery, on Morals and Industry. By Noah Webster, Jun. Esq. Counsellor at Law, and Member of the Connecticut Society for the Promotion of Freedom. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.*

Within the last ten years, Europe has abounded with dissertations against negro-slavery, which have exhibited the utmost pathos of sentiment, and acuteness of reasoning. This country, in particular, appears to have nearly monopolised the *theory* of humanity:—the senate and the press have, perhaps, displayed in every possible variety the *fine things* capable of being *said* and *written* on so popular a subject.—In America, *deeds*, and not merely words, have evinced

grinned the abhorrence entertained by many states, of a species of traffic and domination the most unnatural, irreligious, and unjust, that could enter the imagination of man to practise. — It is pleasing to observe that those among the Americans, who have emancipated their slaves, have not acted from the fears of superstition or the dictates of a romantic generosity, but from the peculiarly valuable and solid conviction, that to be just is to be prudent. To the illustration of this important principle, Mr. Webster's production is devoted; and the remarks with which it commences, will afford our readers an opportunity of estimating the talents and philanthropy of the respectable author —

' The injustice of enslaving any part of the human race has been the subject of so much public discussion, and is so generally admitted by the inhabitants of Connecticut, that any attempt to prove it, would be a very ill compliment to the understandings of my enlightened fellow citizens. Nor could any efforts of mine add novelty to the subject; so numerous, elaborate and diffuse have been the essays, and so powerful the eloquence employed in vindicating the violated rights of humanity, that language and rhetoric are exhausted.

' But men, instructed by their avarice in a species of subtle casuistry, have learnt to make a material distinction between abstract rights and private interest or policy. In defending the African slave-trade, its advocates, compelled by the powers of reason to abandon the right, have taken refuge under the policy and necessity of the traffic. Here entrenched as in a strong hold, they maintain their station, and bid defiance to the attacks of reason and religion. To drive them from this citadel of defence, it becomes necessary to encounter them with their own weapons, and upon their own ground.

' As the only steady, permanent and uniform spring of men's actions, is a regard to their supposed interest, if we would effectually restrain them from the pursuit of any object, we must first convince them that the object, if obtained, will not produce them the real benefit and happiness which they expect. It is not sufficient to persuade nations concerned in the slave trade, that the practice of enslaving their brethren of the human race, is barbarous and wicked, and that it is a violation of the laws of nature and society. Previous to their relinquishing the practice, they must be convinced that such relinquishment will not be materially prejudicial to their interest.

' To endeavour to prove this important truth, that slavery, in all its forms and varieties, is repugnant to the private interest and public happiness of man, is the task I have assigned myself in this essay; though neither my talents nor my opportunities of acquiring the necessary information, will enable me to do justice to the subject. In taking this comprehensive view of the effects of slavery on men

and nations, the society, to whom this treatise is addressed, will pardon me, if I do not restrict myself to the consideration of the African slave trade and the more immediate purposes of their institution; for the effects of despotism and a violent restraint of the natural liberty of man, are the same in all countries; subject however to inconsiderable modifications from climate, soil, religion, or other incidental circumstances.' - P. 5.

The plan here sketched is ably filled up by Mr. Webster, with a series of striking historical examples of the evils of slavery, both *civil* and *political*, from the earliest ages of the world to the present period: and the author's reflections on the *impolicy* as well as the injustice of tyranny entitle him to the appellation of a philosopher, a man of sense, and a good citizen.

*A Letter to the Right Hon. the Earl of Charlemont on the Tellograph, and on the Defence of Ireland. By Richard Lovell Edgeworth, Esq. F. R. S. and M. R. I. A. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1797.*

This pamphlet contains a severer charge upon the administration of Ireland, than most, perhaps, that have lately been made against it. It is unnecessary to say any thing on the utility of telegraphs: they have been tried with great success both in France and England; and we learn from this Letter that they might have rendered, at very little expense, essential service to Ireland. The writer is a man of property, who had, so early as the year 1767, made some experiments with telegraphs, a system of communication by no means of modern invention; and in the year 1794, he constructed some machines, by which he communicated intelligence from Edgeworth's-town to Pakenham-hall, the seat of lord Longford. Encouraged by the speaker, he erected, in 1795, machines in several other places, and presented a memorial to lord Camden, offering, at the expense of three hundred pounds for each permanent station, and half the sum for temporary stations, to convey, with thirty permanent stations, intelligence to every part of the kingdom. Lord Camden rejected this proposal. In September, 1796, there was an alarm of invasion, when this patriotic writer, in a letter to lord Carhampton, offered to 'convey intelligence from the coast to government at his own expense.' Lord Camden now desired to see the writer, — expressed his sorrow for not accepting the offer made last year, — inquired after the expense of communication between Cork and Dublin, — said that a person belonging to the admiralty telegraph was engaged to come over to establish one in Ireland, — and, finally, wished to have trial made before him of the telegraph.

These experiments were soon after made before lord Camden, who declared 'that no other telegraph should be employed in preference to the writer's;' and the following written proposal was, at Mr. Pelham's desire, delivered in on October 6th, 1796.

'Mr. Edgeworth will undertake to convey intelligence from  
Dublin—

Dublin to Cork, and back to Dublin, by means of fourteen or fifteen different stations, at the rate of one hundred pounds per annum, for each station, as long as government shall think proper; and from Dublin to any other place at the same rate, in proportion to the distance. — Provided, that when government chooses to discontinue the business, they shall pay one year's contract, over and above the current expence, as some compensation for the prime cost of the apparatus, and the trouble of the first establishment.' p. 15.

Mr. Pelham was so pleased with the mode, that he recommended it to the duke of York; and the writer's son was sent to London, and actually made the experiment in Kensington-gardens before his royal highness. The writer expected now to see his plan adopted; but on Nov. 17, 1796, received a letter from Mr. Pelham, to tell him that lord Spencer did not think the establishment of telegraphs in Ireland of sufficient importance to warrant the expence.

Thus there was an end put to our author's expectations; and his fortune enabled him to bear the loss of a considerable sum without inconvenience. Had he been a poor man, the endeavour to serve his country might have been fatal to him; and, on this point, we have the following judicious remark —

' Figure to yourself, my lord — for you can feel for your inferiors — the despair of an ingenious, friendless man, who had bestowed the bread of his family in perfecting a project, which ought to have been adopted for its utility; figure to yourself such a man, lured on beyond the bounds of prudence, by the fallacious hopes of remuneration, receiving at last a cold negative, and dismissed to wretchedness and a prison. — If this publication can save one such man from ruin, my expence, and time, and labour, have been well bestowed,' p. 28.

At the conclusion, we have some apposite queries on the difference to administration, between their situation on the French invasion, and what it would have been if his telegraphs had been used; and surely a government, not remarkable for its economy, might have ventured a few hundred pounds on an experiment which must have been attended with such real benefit. Our author's plan was also to communicate intelligence from Dublin to Donaghadee, with a view of communicating to London, by means of a series of telegraphs.

Such is our opinion of the utility of telegraphs, that we think such a communication might be made without any burthen to the public, compared with the sums wasted on trifling objects; and, perhaps, in no great length of time, telegraphs may be found as useful in commercial concerns as the post.



*A fair Statement of the real Grievances experienced by the Officers and Sailors in the Navy of Great-Britain; with a Plan of Reform, which is calculated to benefit and satisfy all these Parties; at the same Time it would occasion a considerable Saving to the Country, and obviate the Necessity of the Impress Services in future—In a Letter to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, Treasurer of the Navy, &c. &c. By a Naval Officer. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bell, 1797.*

The defects of our naval system, and the grievances complained of, are considered by our author under various heads.—He objects to the admiralty-board being constituted of persons in civil life; and to the making of too many admirals, which is merely an act of convenience, and serves to create more patronage. The commander in chief, he thinks, has too little salary, and much less than the treasurer of the navy, an office which may be filled by any man versed in arithmetic. He objects also to the unequal distribution of prize-money, and to the neglect of the navy at the conclusion of the last war. The captains are amply provided for, in point of pay, in some rates, and as badly in others. The lieutenants' late addition of pay should have been made both to their full and half-pay, in order to make them more attached to the service. The reason why this class of officers are neglected is the amazing number of them upon the list; if the promotion was to graduate according to seniority, it would deprive ministers of their patronage; our author, however, does not mean that *all* patronage should be taken out of their hands; particular cases require such a power; but the claim to it should be specific, and publicly known.

In this manner the grievances of the other officers and seamen are detailed, and remedies proposed, most of which appear to us easy to carry into effect, and not more burthensome to the nation than the present order of things. If, however, the question is whether patronage or grievances are to be abolished, we may be allowed to doubt the efficacy of any remedy, and to be apprehensive that the late mutiny, though apparently quelled, is but the prelude to a complete disorganisation of that force on which Great Britain has placed her confidence, and found her safety in the worst of times.

*A Letter from a Naval Officer to a Friend, on the late alarming Mutiny aboard the Fleet. 8vo. 1s. Murray and Highley, 1797.*

There is nothing in this Letter with which the public are unacquainted. The author appears to have written it rather to give an opinion than a relation of facts. He extols, in high terms, the conduct of administration, and deprecates the spirit of reform among the lower classes of society: nor is he sparing of his insinuations against the opposition. He seems to consider sailors as a dis-

tinger

single class of human beings; but he forgets that they are made up of all classes, and, in times of distress, of the very worst; every petty thief and vagrant having it submitted to him, whether he will go on board his majesty's ships, or receive corporal punishment. There is among sailors, as among men of all professions, a mixture of good and bad; and the failure of the late mutiny was, we hope, owing to the predominance of the good.

*Dispersion of the Gloomy Apprehensions, of late repeatedly suggested, from the Decline of our Corn-Trade, and Conclusions of a directly opposite Tendency established upon well-authenticated Facts: to which are added, Observations upon the first Report from the Committee on Waste Lands, &c. By the Rev. John Howlett, Vicar of Great Dunmow, Essex. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Richardson. 1797.*

This pamphlet is intended as an answer to Mr. Dirom's Inquiry into the Corn Laws, &c. of which our readers will find an account in the Crit. Rev. for July, 1796, New Arr. Mr. Dirom contended, that, from nearly the commencement of the present century, when the corn laws of 1688, &c. encouraging exportation, had begun to operate, our exports of grain continually increased, and our imports as constantly diminished, till about the year 1750, when the former exceeded the latter by an annual average of 800,000 quarters; but that from that period, a melancholy reverse took place; that our imports constantly gained on our exports, till at length, during the twelve years from 1773 to 1784 inclusive, the balance of importation against us amounted yearly to 311,176 quarters. This difference Mr. Dirom imputes to injudicious alterations in our corn laws, and intimates that our agriculture has ever since been rapidly declining. Mr. Howlett, on the other hand, contends that all this is utterly void of foundation, except the general fact, the decline of our corn-trade; but that as to the causes and consequences, with the various reasonings Mr. Dirom has employed, they all appear to him egregious misconceptions.

Most of the supposed facts have never existed, and the deductions fairly to be drawn from that which is readily allowed, instead of being gloomy and despondent, when viewed in connexion with the numerous co-existent circumstances, are the most satisfactory and pleasing.' p. 6.

So wide is the difference between two men arguing with, we believe, the most honest intentions, from nearly the same premises and on the same subject! It is not a controversy into which we can enter. Mr. Howlett, we think, has proved some of his positions; and the wish of readers of all descriptions is in his favour. It may be remembered, that he contends, in his former publications, for the increased population of great Britain, which, in the last forty years, he now states at two millions and a half.—His remarks on the report of waste lands are deserving of attention.

*Memoirs of the Administration of the Right Hon. William Pitt, of an Inquiry into the Causes and Consequences of his Conduct, in Respect to different Departments, Bodies, and Public Individuals of the State. In a Letter to the Right Hon. the Earl of Suffolk, in Consequence of his Lordship's Motion in Parliament, and Conferences with his Majesty, for the Removal of Ministers. By David Gam, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Reed. 1797.*

David Gam 'follows a multitude' of writers in denouncing the whole conduct of Mr. Pitt in the management of the affairs of the nation, especially since the commencement of the war. It is impossible that much novelty can be expected in an accusation of this kind: but there are individual parts to which he has given a degree of prominence; and the whole might have been read with more advantage, had he written in a more regular style, and avoided an affectation of consequence, which will not be allowed to an anonymous author,—for David Gam is an assumed name. There are assertions, likewise, made here, for which it is but fair to expect the best authority.

*An Impartial Statement of the Merits and Services of Opposition: with a View to the Preservation of the British Constitution, and the Means of restoring Peace and Prosperity to these Countries. Addressed to the People of Great Britain. By S. Fleming. 8vo. 1s. Hamilton. 1797.*

If a statement deserves the name of *impartial*, which leans entirely to one side, this is eminently so. The ministry are arraigned before a severe judge, who finds nothing good or praise-worthy in their conduct; and the salvation of the country is stated to depend on its affairs being immediately placed in the hands of Messrs. Fox and Co. for the good of all concerned. The author is cursory in his facts; but his declamation, though warm, is not so disrespectful as might be expected from a party writer.

*A Caution and Warning to the Inhabitants of Great Britain; but more especially to her Rulers, and all in Power. By Thomas Shillitoe. 12mo. 3d. Darton and Harvey. 1797.*

This is a serious (and some will say, a methodistical) piece of advice to the rulers and people of these kingdoms, to observe the hand of providence in what befalls them, and to turn to the Almighty by repentance and reformation. The author expatiates largely on the prevailing vices of the age, especially stage-plays, and deprecates that confidence in *man* which seems so presumptuous both in the governors and governed. From this sketch of its contents, our readers will be apt to think that this pamphlet will be most acceptable where it is least wanted,—among that class of people who view human events as connected with the scheme of divine providence, in inflicting judgments or bestowing rewards on a nation, in proportion to its deserts.

## P O E T I C A L

*Ellenore, a Ballad originally written in German by G. A. Bürger.*  
4to. 2s. Johnson. 1796.

The striking ballad of Bürger, from which so many translations have lately been made, has been a kind of Ulysses' bow to the poets. The version now under our consideration, though it appears last, was probably written before any of the others, since it had long circulated in manuscript, and was noticed in a volume of poems published by Dr. Aikin, in 1791. It was at length given in the Monthly Magazine for March last, and appears now with some alterations from that copy. In one instance, page 7, the author says, 'He has availed himself of the highly finished translation of Mr. Spencer, which bears' (he adds) 'the same relation to the original, as Pope's Homer to the Iliad.'

The peculiar merit of this translation is, that it renders the ideas of Bürger, without any diminution of their strength, in a style so idiomatic, as to have all the force and beauty, and the very air, of an original; the reader will be convinced of this by the few stanzas we shall quote. We are precluded from a more particular critique, by a consciousness that the subject, from having been brought before the public in so many shapes, has lost its freshness and much of its interest; but this we may venture to assert, that if the translation before us had been published when it was written, no reader of taste would have wished for any second attempt. We cannot but express our earnest wishes that the translator of Goethe's *Iphigenia*, and Bürger's *Ellenore*, would oblige the public with more specimens of his uncommon powers of versification. The reader will observe the happy use he has made of some genuine and expressive English words, which the fastidiousness of modern composition has in general laid aside. To restore the true Saxon words, as also the old genitive, as this author has done in *fendis* for *fend's*, and the Saxon plural in *en*, we conceive to be doing a service to our language; but we confess we do not think equally well of an attempt to revive the old manner of spelling, which is equally void of grace and effect. It has also a tendency to counteract the influence which an author of taste, like the present, might have in reviving the neglected treasures of our language. If a revived word appears in a composition, modern in other respects, writers may be inclined to adopt it; but if it appears amidst the dress of antique spelling, we never think of adopting it, unless we put on the whole costume of the age in a direct imitation.

'Halloo! halloo! how swift they go,  
Unheeding wet or dry;  
And horse and rider snort and blow  
And sparkling pebbles fly.

'How

- ' How swift the hill, how swift the dale,  
 Aright, aleft, are gon!  
 By hedge and tree, by thorp and town,  
 They gallop, galkop on.  
 ' Tramp, tramp, across the land they speede;  
 Splath, splash, across the see:  
 " Hurrah! the dead can ride apace;  
 Dost feare to ride with mee?  
 " Look up, look up, an airy crew  
 In roundel daunces reele:  
 The moon is bright, and blue the night,  
 Mayst dimly see them wheele.  
 " Come to, come to, ye ghostly crew,  
 Come to, and follow me,  
 And daunce for us the wedding-daunce,  
 When we in bed shal be."  
 ' And brush, brush, brush, the ghostly crew  
 Come wheeling ore their heads,  
 All rustling like the witherd leaves  
 That wide the whirlwind spreads.  
 ' Halloo! halloo! away they go,  
 Unheeding wet or dry;  
 And horse and rider snort and blow,  
 And sparkling pebbles fly.' r. 10.

*An English Prologue and Epilogue to the Latin Comedy of Iguertinus; written by George Ruggle, formerly Fellow of Clare-Hall, Cambridge: and performed by Members of the University, before King James in 1614, and 1615, and, at different Times, by the Scholars of Westminster School. With a Preface and Notes, relative to modern Times and Manners. By George Dyer, late of Emmanuel College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1797.*

The tribute of applause which we have bestowed on some of Mr. Dyer's former publications, cannot be justly withheld from the present effort of his Muse, a performance that possesses a smooth versification, seasoned with vivacity. An extract from what is called Prologus Posterior, will, we think, justify our eulogium—

' Hail wisdom's golden age! e'en schoolboys grow  
 Wiser than teachers were some years ago.  
 Hence, Dulness! with thine iron offspring, hence!  
 See now return the golden age of sense!  
 Our grandfathers of genius had some store;  
 Some too our fathers; but their sons have more.  
 What trick so dextrous, or what scheme so great,  
 But we can, proudly daring, imitate?

Our modern bucks, and modern schoolboys too,  
 Burst forth in 'swarms, and prove our maxims true !  
 Schoolboys, like butterflies, gay-glittering rise,  
 First crawl on earth, but soon attempt the skies.  
 Disdaining to themselves to be confin'd,  
 See the bold striplings mimic all mankind !

' Mark one, to whom kind nature deign'd dispense  
 Of wit a scruple, and a grain of sense,  
 Melting o'er gentle Shenstone with delight ;  
 Till tir'd of sighing, he begins to write :  
 Of Phœbus born, he claims the poet's name,  
 And trusts the critic will support his claim :  
 " Begin, Aonian maids." — Do they refuse ?  
 Hear him invoke his mistress for the Muse.

" Oh ! thou whose graces every heart control,  
 Cloe ! dear goddess of my prostrate soul ;  
 Nor rose, nor lily, with your beauty vies ;  
 Envy, ye stars, the brightness of her eyes !  
 To thee the purest, tenderest strains belong.  
 Ah ! listen, Cloe, to thy minstrel's song :  
 And listen, shepherds, to a lover's lay ;  
 And listen, lambkins, while ye bleat and play."  
 Till tir'd of Cloe, soon he shifts the scenes,  
 Writes songs and rebuffs for magazines.

' But, see ! where yonder like a Mars is seen,  
 A youth of fire, and chivalrous of mien,  
 The man of honour, sir, the man of action :  
 " Sir, as a *gemman*, I claim satisfaction.  
 Let your Mendozas deal round vulgar blows,  
 And for black eyes return a bloody nose ;  
 Practis'd in arms, I dare a nobler strife,  
 Nor lose my honour, though I lose my life."

' And lo ! mock combats thicken all around ;  
 Spears clash on spears, and mimic trumpets found ;  
 Rank above rank the pigmy squadrons close,  
 Till Grecian warriors rout their Trojan foes :  
 Or now, (so loyal oft the schoolboy's heart,)  
 Against Tom Paine they take the zealous part,  
 Till such, as late a score of Trojans slew,  
 Put Tom to flight, and all his rebel crew.' P. 11.

The Epilogus Posterior abounds with rather too much acrimony, and wants the amenity of the Prologue. The attack on the rev. bishop of R. — we hope to be owing to some misconception of Mr. Dyer, and consequently unmerited. That the bishop's political conduct has raised him a number of enemies amongst the true friends of liberty, must be allowed ; and we make no doubt of his

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sincere repentance of certain dogmas advanced by him in a great assembly, that have become the objects of universal censure; but that he is the character suggested by Mr. Dyer, we hope, for the honour of the cloth, to be the poet's *fiction*.

*The Mæviad. By the Author of the Baviad. 4to. 3s. Nicol. 1796.*

The author of the Baviad has again sharpened his pen, and attacked, without mercy, the Della Cruscan tribe, adding to them some names which had hitherto escaped. His satirical talents are undoubtedly genuine, — his criticisms keen, and founded on good sense, — his verse easy and spirited, though sometimes negligent. The present publication is, perhaps, inferior to the former in strength; but the justice of his censures is sufficiently apparent from the incomprehensible nonsense, which, from the works of Laura Matilda, &c. he has quoted in his notes. We must, however, admonish the author of the Mæviad, that folly has now been chastised sufficiently; let him next endeavour to produce some work of merit, which may stand the test of that criticism by which he tries the productions of others. As a specimen of his talent in praising, we shall quote his address to a justly celebrated artist —

‘Thou too, my Hoppner! if my wish availed,  
Shouldst praise the strain that but for thee had failed:  
Thou knowest, when indolence possessed me all,  
How oft I roused at thy inspiring call;  
Burst from the Syren’s fascinating power,  
And gave the Muse thou lovest one studious hour.

‘Proud of thy friendship, while the voice of fame  
Pursues thy merits with a loud acclaim,  
I share the triumph — not unpleased to see  
Our kindred destinies; for thou, like me,  
Wast thrown too soon on the world’s dangerous tide,  
To sink or swim, as chance might best decide.  
Me, all too weak to gain the distant land,  
The waves had whelmed, but that an outstretched hand  
Kindly upheld; when now with ~~few~~ unnerved, —  
And still protects the life it then preserved.  
Thee, powers untried, perhaps unselt before,  
Enabled, tho’ with pain, to reach the shore,  
While \* \* \* stood by, the doubtful strife to view,  
Nor lent a friendly arm to help thee through.  
Nor ceased the labour there: hate, ill suppress,  
Advantage took of thy ingenuous breast,  
Where saving wisdom yet had placed no screen,  
But every word, and every thought was seen,  
To darken all thy life: — ’tis past; more bright  
Thro’ the disparting gloom thou strikest the light;

While

While baffled malice hastes thy powers to own,  
 And wonders at the worth so long unknown,  
 I too, whose voice no claims but truth's e'er moved,  
 Who long have seen thy merits, long have loved,  
 Yet loved in silence, lest the rout should say  
 Too partial friendship tuned th' applausive lay;  
 Now, now that all conspire thy name to raise,  
 May join the shout of unsuspected praise.

'Go then, since the long struggle now is o'er,  
 And envy can obstruct thy fame no more,  
 With ardent hand thy magic toil pursue,  
 And pour fresh wonders on our raptured view.  
 One sun is set, one glorious sun; whose rays  
 Long gladdened Britain with no common blaze:  
 O, may'st thou soon (for clouds begin to rise)  
 Assert his station in the eastern skies,  
 Glow with his fires, and give the world to see  
 Another Reynolds risen, my friend, in thee.' P. 59.

*Lectures shewing the several Sources of that Pleasure which the Human Mind receives from Poetry. By the Rev. James Hurdis, D. D. Professor of Poetry in the University of Oxford. Numbers I. and II. 4to. 2s. 6d. each. Johnson. 1797.*

*Lectures on poetry*, from the poetry professor of the elder of our two learned universities, cannot but attract the attention of those who are solicitous to have their judgment directed, and their taste improved in polite literature, especially as, after the labours of lord Kaims, Blair, and others, in the walk of elegant criticism, they must naturally imagine the public notice would not be solicited by any who had not some original ideas to offer.—But how surprised must they be to find that the lectures of the learned professor are nothing more, as far as appears from the numbers already published, than a new *Byssie's Art of Poetry*, only less methodically arranged, and printed in a less convenient form! If any of our readers, however, wish to have a specimen of the remarks interspersed between the passages of poetry, he may judge of their depth and importance by the following—

'Agreeable are the several images which enliven the following lines of Cowley.' No. ii. p. 64.

'Very charming are the scenes which the author's imagination summons together in the following lines of Tickel.' No. ii. p. 64.

'Not unpleasant is the following assemblage of images from Prior's Solomon.' No. ii. p. 67.

'Rocks are thus presented to the mind by Hayley.' No. ii. p. 88.

'Mason is agreeable when speaking of time, he says.' No. ii. p. 89.

So many poems of merit have been published since the time of Byssie, that a new selection under proper heads, and well arranged,



might be an agreeable work: — but it should not be given to the world under the pompous title of *Lectures*.

*A Companion to the Sacred History; containing select Hymns on the Historical Parts of Scripture. In Two Books. I. On the History of the Old Testament. II. On the History of the New Testament. Compiled at the Request of the Author of "Sacred History, in Familiar Dialogues, &c." 12mo. 6d. Gardiner. 1797.*

A short extract from the Preface will furnish a proper account of this rhyming 'Companion to the Sacred History' —

'In forming this selection, the compiler has availed himself of all the helps he could procure from hymns already published; in the insertion of which, he has occasionally taken the liberty to add, abbreviate, alter, or transpose, to make them more conformable to his plan. Where these materials failed, he has done his best to supply the deficiency. The hymns borrowed from others are distinguished by having the name of the author or editor prefixed to them.

'Conciseness, perspicuity, and practical instruction have been principally aimed at, both in the selection and in the composition. Being chiefly intended for the use of young persons, brevity has been invariably regarded; none of the hymns containing more than five verses, that the mind might not be overburdened, where it should be thought eligible to commit them to memory.' P. i.

We have only to add that Watts and Newton have furnished the greater part of this selection, and to subjoin the following specimen of our author's talents for devotional poetry.

*'Jacob's Ladder.*

'When Jacob from his brother fled,  
As he repos'd his weary head,  
He saw in vision, with surprise,  
A ladder reaching to the skies.

'Ascending and descending here  
The angels of the Lord appear;  
And, from on high, a voice address'd  
To Jacob's ear, pronounc'd him blest.

'We, in this mystic ladder, trace  
A view of Jesus and his grace:  
In him all blessings are bestow'd,  
In him we find access to God.

'O let us then, without delay,  
To Jesus come, the only way,  
In which our sins can be forgiv'n,  
And we at last ascend to heav'n.' P. 4.

RELI-

## R E L I G I O U S.

*The Nature and the Causes of Atheism, pointed out in a Discourse, delivered at the Chapel in Lewin's-Mead, Bristol. To which are added, Remarks on a Work, entitled Origine de tous les Cultes, ou Religion Universelle. Par Dupuis, Citoyen François. By John Prior Estlin. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. 1797.*

We are in more danger, this author thinks, from infidelity than superstition. Perhaps there is a fault in this nation, of a worse tendency than either,—*indifferentism*. The revolution in France has naturally made the advocates for infidelity bolder than they used to be: and, for the cause of truth, we must rejoice; since the greater opportunity that is given to the advocates of a bad cause to come forward in its defence, the greater must in the end be their confusion. But we are very much inclined to believe that atheism has so few disciples in this country, that it is scarce necessary to repeat the arguments by which it was, in the last century, so completely overthrown. By those, however, who may be in danger from the few persons of this persuasion who are said to be active in proselyting, the remarks in this discourse, and in the Appendix, may be read with advantage. The question will, without doubt, undergo full discussion in a neighbouring country; but whatever may be the practice in this island, it is not probable that we should ever sink into the gross ignorance of atheism. We are not in the situation of our neighbours, which is thus well described by our author—

‘The period of implicit reception, in France, appears to be over; the period of implicit rejection, as might naturally be expected, has succeeded; the period of discrimination is yet future. When this intellectual process shall be completed, we may reasonably expect that the result of the whole, will be a soil, favourable for the reception of the seeds of truth. Perhaps the same principle, in an inferior degree, and the inconsistent conduct of many believers in God, and professors of Christianity, with their belief and profession, will account for the rejection, not only of Christianity, but also of Theism, by some in this country, who in other circumstances would have admitted both. The conduct of such, however, though it may merit forgiveness, has no claim to commendation. The investigation of the subject is not attended with any peculiar difficulties; and persons of truly enlarged and unprejudiced minds, may soon know both what Christianity is, and by what evidence it is supported. Mr. Wakefield, in his notes on Matthew, says that “infidel objectors to Christianity might often convince themselves of its truth, with half the labour which they perversely take to disparage and subvert it.” If the time which M. Dupuis has spent in investigating the origin of the figures on an artificial celestial globe, and in endeavouring to reconcile the Apocalypse

calypse with his system of the worship of the sun, had been employed in reading this author's translation of the New Testament, his notes on Matthew's Gospel, his Enquiry into the Opinions of the Christian Writers of the three first Centuries, and his Remarks on the Internal Evidences of the Christian Religion, he could not have written as he has done, and have thought that he was attacking Christianity. The discourses of Dr. Forster, on the principal Branches of Natural Religion and Social Virtue, are calculated to prepare the mind for a clear comprehension of these subjects; and I cannot help expressing a wish that no person would hereafter conceive himself qualified to write against revealed religion, who has not studied, not only the smaller works of Dr. Paley and bishop Watson, but the larger works of doctors Lardner and Priestley. Until this is done, a firm Theist, and a zealous Christian, who has made himself master of the subject, can at any time place the arguments in favour of infidelity, in a clearer point of view than they are placed by the generality of infidels themselves.' p. 49.

*The Compassion and Beneficence of the Deity. A Sermon, preached before the Society incorporated by Royal Charter for the Benefit of the Spns of the Clergy of the established Church of Scotland, in the Tron Church of Edinburgh, May 20, 1796. By Hugh Blair, D. D. F. R. S. E. &c. &c. To which is added, an Account of the Objects and Constitution of the Society. Published by Desire of the Society. 8vo. Creech, Edinburgh. 1797.*

The sermon we have here to announce has in some respects the advantage of most others by its author. The style is less laboured, though not destitute of stiffness: the subject is well chosen, and adapted to the occasion. The part more peculiarly apposite, as presenting the state of the Scottish clergy, we subjoin —

‘ By the train of sentiment we have pursued, your thoughts, my brethren, will now be naturally led to the consideration of that institution which has given occasion to the meeting of this day; the Society formed for the benefit of the Sons of the Clergy of the Established Church of Scotland.

‘ In entering on this part of the subject, I trust that I may be permitted to say a few words concerning that order of men, in behalf of whose descendents the favour of the public is now requested. Though belonging myself to that order, yet as my advanced age and long experience may reasonably be supposed to have corrected the prejudices and cooled the ardour of partiality, some weight, I hope, will be allowed to my testimony; when now, in the fifty-fourth year of my ministry, after having seen successions of ministers, in various parts of the country rise and fall, and after long acquaintance with many, of divided sentiments, among my brethren, I can with confidence declare it as my opinion, that there exists not any where a more respectable and useful class of men than the clergy of

the church of Scotland. Among such a numerous body, I readily admit that some exceptions will be found to the character which I now give of them. Considering human frailty, this is no more than was naturally to be expected. But, taking the ministers of this church in general, I can venture to assert that they are a well-informed and enlightened set of men: decent and irreproachable in their behaviour, conscientious in the discharge of their pastoral duties, and very generally esteemed by the people under their care. There was a time, when the Presbyterian clergy lay under the imputation of being sour in their tempers, narrow in their opinions, severe and intolerant in their principles. But as, together with the diffusion of knowledge, a more liberal spirit has pervaded the clerical order in this part of Britain, it will be found that their manners now are conciliating; that they study to promote harmony and good order in their parishes; that they have shown themselves addicted to useful literature, and in several branches of it have eminently distinguished themselves; and that while they are edifying and consolatory to the lowest, they have acquired just respect from the higher classes of men.

As long, therefore, as this country shall be preserved from the contagion of that false philosophy which, by overthrowing all religious establishments, has engendered so much impiety, and wrought so much mischief, in a neighbouring land; as long as the existence of Christian faith, and of religious principles, shall be considered as essential to the welfare of a nation, it may reasonably, I think, be expected, that such a body of men as I have mentioned shall be held entitled to the regard and good will of their fellow citizens and countrymen.

Circumstances there are, which give particular occasion for this regard and good will to be called forth. You all know the nature of that provision which is made by the public for the established clergy of this country. It is such as is suited to that sober and frugal manner of living which is expected from ministers of the gospel. Though, in consideration of the growing prosperity of the country, and of its natural consequence, the increased rate of every expence, it has been found reasonable that, of late years, some addition should be made to the provision of many of the ministers, yet still their condition approaches not to what can be termed opulence in any degree. It is such as to raise them above contempt; such as to afford a decent subsistence for themselves and their families; but such as seldom or never can enable them, without some other sources of revenue, to make provision for their children when going forth into the world, especially if their family be numerous.

It was the consideration of this circumstance that lately gave rise to the society in favour of the sons of the clergy. Many a minister who, for a tract of years, has faithfully laboured in the discharge of every duty to his flock, has felt, towards the close of

his days, what a blessing it would have proved to him, if such a society had existed in his time, to which he could have looked for aid. — Represent to yourselves, my friends, one of this character, — and the representation which I am now to give is not the work of fancy, but founded upon what often in fact takes place. — Figure, I say, a worthy clergyman, now in the decline of life, foreseeing the end of his labours drawing near, surrounded with a family of children, to whom his chief care had been devoted, and in whom his heart had long been bound up. Their education, from their earliest years, he had conducted, or at least superintended himself, with paternal fondness. Whatever his scanty stores could afford he had cheerfully expended, in giving all the advantage to their education which his own village, or which the nearest county town could yield. He had made every preparation that was in his power to make, for their acting a proper part in future life. But the time of preparation is finished. The gay season of childhood is over. The period is arrived when they must go forth; must leave that paternal mansion where, in the midst of their youthful companions, they had spent many happy days; must go to provide for themselves, the best they can, in a world which to them is unknown. And whither are they to go? — Of the few friends their father ever had, some are now gone down to the dust. — Others, with whom he once lived, in familiar intimacy, lifted up now with the pride of opulence, have forgotten him and his family. One of his sons, at least, he fondly wished to have educated for that profession to which he himself had been so long attached. But, living at a distance from any of the seats of learning, and having no protector to whose assistance he could look, he feels with regret that he is unable for the attempt. Some of his children he must send away to seek their fortune in a distant land. Others must be consigned to the dangers of the ocean, or be reduced to gain their bread by following some of the mean and laborious occupations of life. Viewing the dark and discouraging prospect that is before them, the father's heart is sore, when he bids adieu to his children. With tears in his eyes, he gives them his blessing as they depart. Little more it is in his power to give them; but he commits them to the protection of their father's God. — How happy, if, in these mournful moments, a voice of such a nature as this could reach his ears; Leave thy fatherless children; I will preserve them alive; and let thy widows trust in me! P. 18.

*Addresses to the People of Otaheite, designed to assist the Labour of Missionaries, and other Instructions of the Ignorant. To which is prefixed, a short Address to the Members and Friends of the Missionary Society in London. By John Love, Minister of the Scots Presbyterian Congregation, Artillery Lane, Bishopsgate Street, and Secretary to the Missionary Society. 12mo. 2s.6d. Chapman. 1796.*

These Addresses are no farther worthy of attention, than as they come

come from the secretary of a mission much talked of; the consequences of which may, in some degree, be predicted from the spirit and information of its conductors. Of their zeal there can be no doubt: of their knowledge, from the specimens before us, we may entertain some suspicion. In the first address, the inhabitants of Otaheite are thus called upon—

‘Jehovah, the great God, who made the land and the waters, Jehovah, the great God, who created us, and who created the people of Otaheite, said to us, “Go through the great waters to the people of Otaheite.” P. 2.

Some shrewd Otaheitan may perhaps ask these orators, When and where did Jehovah speak to you? Show us your credentials.

The second address will neither frighten nor strike the Otaheitan—

‘Listen ye men and women of Otaheite. We have declared to you the name of the great God Jehovah. Never did a name so glorious, so awful, and so sweet strike your ears, Jehovah! we tremble and rejoice while we pronounce it. Let your souls within your bodies tremble and rejoice. He thus spake from the clouds to one of the ancient fathers, “Jehovah, Jehovah, the strong God, merciful, and gracious, long suffering, and abundant in goodness and truth, keeping mercy for thousands, forgiving iniquity, transgression and sin, and that will by no means clear the guilty.” The ancient father who heard these words sounding with majesty in his ears, “made haste, and bowed his head towards the earth, and worshipped.” P. 6.

On the subject of the Trinity, we have the following passage—

‘Hearken and consider. Jehovah our God is one Lord. Besides him there is not any other God. He is one. But in this one Jehovah you are to reckon One, Two, Three, and no more. There are three, each of whom is Jehovah, yet Jehovah is one. These three are quite equal to each other, because every one of them is the one Jehovah. Their names are the Father, the Son, the Holy Spirit. The Father is the first who is Jehovah, the Son is the second who is also the same Jehovah, the Holy Spirit is the third who is likewise the same Jehovah. This is our God, the one Jehovah the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit, whom the angels of heaven worship for ever and ever.

‘Dear brethren and sisters, you think this is strange, but it is the truth, and in a little while you will see it clearly, and be exceeding glad. You know that the sun is in the skies, enlightening and warming the earth, though you hardly dare take a glance at his brightness. So we know and believe, that in the one infinitely bright Jehovah there are these three, the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit, each of whom is the whole Jehovah, though they are so bright, that our minds hardly dare look at them.

\* These three, the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit, were together, as it were embracing each other, with great delight, from eternity. They were together in creating the worlds; and when the man and woman whom they created pure, became wicked, they saw it; and the Father who is Jehovah, spake thus to the Son who is also Jehovah: "Beloved Son, infinite are our pleasures in jointly possessing the boundless, unchangeable, glory of the One Godhead. To us created worlds appear as nothing, we need them not; yet it becometh us to rule over them in wisdom, in goodness, and in righteousness." P. 64.

We have not patience to transcribe the whole speech of the Father, which is followed by another from the Son, and a third from the Holy Spirit, all evidently derived from the imagination of Milton. Surely the missionaries will not deliver this trash to the unenlightened natives of the Pacific regions, for the pure gospel of our Saviour; or does this kingdom deserve the character of an enlightened nation, when a large sum was collected to defray the expenses of a colony freighted with these instructions? The missionaries, and the subscribers to the mission, would do well to compare these addresses with the sober dignity of St. Paul's speeches and letters to gentiles and gentile converts.

*A Layman's Protest against the profane Blasphemy, false Charges, and illiberal Invektive of Thomas Paine, Author of a Book, entitled "The Age of Reason, Part I. and II. being an Investigation of True and Fabulous Theology."* By I. Padman, Jun. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Symonds. 1797.

The arrogant but weak attacks of Mr. Paine on the Christian religion have greatly contributed to lower his reputation as a writer and a reasoner:—the main host of his infidel arguments has been signally routed by the skill and prowess of a reverend and truly learned prelate. The object of the present writer is to cut off the *straggling sophisms*, and thereby render the victory complete. In executing this task, the 'layman,' by the temper of his weapons and the dexterity with which he uses them, proves no unworthy coadjutor of the triumphant champion of the church.

*An Essay on the Resurrection of Christ; in which Proofs of the Fact are adduced, its Import is explained, and its beneficial Influence illustrated.* By James Dore. 12mo. 1s. Gurney. 1797.

The subject of the resurrection cannot fail to excite, in pious minds, very serious and important reflections. The whole of Christianity depends on the truth of the fact; and this fact has been investigated more than any other that ever took place in this world. The result is, in our opinion, clearly satisfactory; and the next point

point that our Saviour has assured to us, everlasting life, has been no less the subject of contemplation with the most distinguished Christians. On such subjects, therefore, an author was not likely to advance any thing new; and we do not see in the work before us any particular marks of enlarged views, or any attempt to elevate the mind by dignity of conception or expression. The facts are clearly stated; several texts are introduced, about whose meaning or authenticity as there are still doubts entertained in the Christian world, they should not have been introduced in such a subject; but the reflections will, in general, meet with the approbation of Christians.

*The Lord turning and looking upon Peter. A Sermon. By James Harriman Hutton, B. A. Curate of Withcombe Rawleigh, Devon.*  
4to. Trewman and Son, Exeter. 1797.

We shall be much obliged to this preacher to prove an assertion in the sermon, that St. Peter went to Rome at the close of his life, that he lived more than thirty years after the crucifixion, and that at Rome he received the crown of martyrdom.

*The Glory of Religion, founded on the Doctrine of the ever blessed Trinity: or, Sabellianism refuted. (Addressed to the Church under the pastoral Care of Mr. Mansel,) to which is added, a Refutation of his erroneous Work, entitled, "An Appeal to the Christian professing World." By George Fosselt. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Button. 1797.*

'He is a god who are holy ones.'—In this mode the author translates from the Hebrew; and his own English, in the greater part of the book, is just as good. The name *Lord*, in the Hebrew, he makes to be *Adonia*; and if his abusive language were not of itself enough to discourage a purchaser, the quantity of bad spelling would assuredly convince him of the author's talents. A work so ill executed tends rather to support than undermine the cause of his opponent.

*A Sermon, preached at an annual Visitation of the Clergy, of the Archdeaconry of Winchester, held at St. Saviour's, Southwark, Sept. 25, 1795: by the Rev. John Grose, A. M. F. A. S. &c. 8vo. 6d. Richardson. 1797.*

'Published by request,'—that of the archdeacon, or that of the clergy, that of both, or that of neither, we are to guess; for the writer leaves out these necessary additions in his title-page. The duties of the clergy, as to faith and practice, are insisted upon, but not in so peculiar a manner as to require farther publication than is usual at such a visitation.



## L A W.

*The Interesting Trial between the Parish and College of Eton, at the Quarter Sessions at Aylesbury, Oct. 6, 1796, (the Marquis of Buckingham, President) upon an Appeal of the Rev. Dr. Davies, Provost of Eton-College, against the Rate for the Relief of the Poor of that Parish. 12mo. 11. Jordan. 1797.*

The circumstances of this case are well known to the gentlemen of the law, as they have been abundantly productive of provincial strife. For the information of our readers in general, we present them with an extract from the Advertisement to the publication before us, in which the grounds of the cause it reports are concisely stated —

‘ In laying these sheets before the public, the editor conceives that he shall at once gratify a laudable curiosity, and present a valuable portion of information. The following trial is grounded on a rate imposed on the rev. Dr. Davies, provost of Eton-college, for the relief of the poor of the parish of Eton; which he resisted on two grounds; first, that the college was a charitable foundation, and secondly, that it was extra-parochial.’ P. i.

The opinion of the editor on this much agitated question may be collected from the following comments —

‘ At a period when the weight of the provision for the poor (a provision just, necessary, and important) is so heavily felt, it becomes an interesting question, to know what are considered by courts of justice as legitimate grounds of exemption from such a charge. If it be true that the rich, as such, are the proper objects of this species of taxation; and if it be notorious that the parties appealing from the rate, are, both from the emoluments of office and from private sources of wealth, in a state of affluence; we may well be astonished at their suing as it were *in forma pauperis*, as dependents on a charitable institution. If the college of Eton, a rich and extensive foundation, be excluded from contributing to the necessities of the poor by being extra-parochial (which is their other plea) this will at least afford a strong instance of the impolicy and injustice of the present parochial mode of contribution.

‘ Whatever is the law on this subject, the individuals concerned act right in being guided by that law, or in recurring in cases of doubt and difficulty to the tribunals of their country. In this point of view, therefore, no imputation is cast, either upon the overseers or the appellant. But it behoves the legislature, it behoves the nation, well and duly to weigh the considerations on which such laws are grounded, and the effects which result from their operation. To provide for the poor is one of the first duties of government; to regulate such provision equitably is the next. But that can never be called an equitable regulation, which, whilst it loads the indus-

trious

trious mechanic, leaves the rich ecclesiastic unburdened; whilst it imposes on a poor but populous parish an oppressive tax, allows to a rich and limited corporation total immunity.' p. i.

These are very plausible remarks: but in the event of the appeal, the rate in question was quashed,—and a case, for the opinion of the court of King's Bench, refused by a majority of the justices at sessions. We are not friendly to those corporations which monopolise privileges, without contributing to the public burthens; but we are not disposed to admit that seminaries of public education, though they may have deviated, in a degree, from the simplicity of their eleemosynary institutions, should be selected for anipadversion, in preference to more prominent and flagrant instances of the abuse.

## N O V E L S.

*Montalbert. A Novel. By Charlotte Smith. 3 Vols. 12mo. 12s. sewed. Low. 1795.*

By some accident this novel has hitherto escaped our notice,—a circumstance we ought to regret, as it might have sooner relieved us from the inundation of romantic horrors with which the press has lately groaned. It is not inferior, in our opinion, to any of Mrs. Smith's productions; the scenes are natural, the characters strongly drawn, and the language, with a few exceptions, pure and flowing. The incidents are numerous, but skilfully united in one great design; and the cause of innocence and virtue is upheld with dignity and force. A few poetical pieces are interspersed, which those who are acquainted with Mrs. Smith's talents, will know how to appreciate, as they are by no means inferior to her celebrated Sonnets.

*The Cousins of Schiras. Translated from the French by John Brereton Birch, Esq. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed. Lane. 1797.*

The vanity of human wishes, and those misfortunes into which the most generous feelings and splendid accomplishments frequently betray their possessors, supply the moral of this Persian tale.—The reader will perceive that the author's principal agents, though *diminutive*, are invested with great supernatural importance.

Each family had a protecting fairy, who always appeared at the birth of their children, to bestow on them those endowments of mind and body, the usual gifts of that benevolent race of beings.

It however sometimes happened, that a malevolent genii arrived first, when all that could afterwards be done, was, to counter-balance, by the gift of other qualities, the unfortunate influence of the evil genii. Had the latter given deformity of person, the good fairy bestowed the mental qualities of benevolence and tenderness, and that in sufficient measure to obliterate the blemishes of countenance;

nance : when pride was the gift, humanity and sensibility were its counterpoise. Great art was requisite on those occasions in the friendly fairy to correct the fatal gifts of the inimical one ; for which purpose she had made morality her study. Thus, when at a loss to resist the unfortunate gifts of the malevolent genii, she ever bestowed indolence and a voluptuous taste, thereby to blunt the faculties ; so that, in consequence of this wise combination, a man, who, from the excess of his bad qualities would have been a monster, was enabled just to vegetate amidst the women of his se- raglio.' Vol. i. p. 8.

The powers of these rival genii are exerted at the illustrious birth of the two ' Cousins of Schiras.' On Aladin, the evil fairy bestows '*a feeding heart, a superior genius, and an unbounded frankness*;' declaring them to be gifts calculated to expose the possessor of them to perpetual anxiety and mischief : — the good fairy, who had not arrived in time to be present at the birth of Aladin, endeavours to counteract the malice of her precursor to the infant, by saying, 'let him be indolent,' and then tells the parents of his cousin Salem, that their child 'shall be moderate, his disposition active, his inclination patient, and his constitution cold.'

With these opposite qualities, the two cousins commence their career in life. — Salem, a dull, plodding, but crafty character, contrives to secure general reputation, and advances by degrees to the greatest wealth and dignities : — Aladin, on the contrary, is plunged into innumerable difficulties, by a temper at once generous and enterprising : — this latter circumstance is very inconsistent with the mitigating boon of the good fairy. This tale, however, on the whole, is sprightly, agreeable, and moral.

*Anemia ; a Descriptive and Sentimental Novel. Interspersed with Pieces of Poetry. By Jacquetta Agneta Mariana Jenks, of Bellegrove Priory in Wales. Dedicated to the Right Hon. Lady Harriet Marlow. To which are added, Criticisms anticipated. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. sewed. Low. 1797.*

This performance is written upon the plan of *Modern Novel Writing* \*, but is far inferior in point of execution ; and we think the author might have employed his talents in some other mode of satire on the same subject, rather than in a servile imitation of a work so recent. He is not devoid of humour ; and the absurdity of the greater part of 'modern novels' is capable of being represented in various and ridiculous lights. We say he, — for miss J. A. M. Jenks is of the same sex with lady Harriet Marlow, *alias*, Robert Merry, esq. The satirical poetry in this work is preferable to the prose, and nearly equal to lady Harriet's.

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XVIII. p. 472.

*Memoirs of the Ancient House of Clarendon. A Novel. 3 Vols.*  
12mo. 9s. sewed. Lane. 1796.

Though 'the age of chivalry is no more,' the reader, whose taste is not vitiated by the frivolity of modern manners, will delight to trace the simple and heroic features which characterised an earlier and less polished period in the history of Europe.

The scene of the novel before us is laid in England; the story is interesting, and delineates, with pleasing vivacity, the military and domestic manners of the feudal times.

The baron of Clarendon is a nobleman, brave, hospitable, and accomplished; his estate and castle are situated on the borders near Scotland; and the invasion of his domains by Malcolm, son of the earl of Balmano, chief of a Scottish clan, produces the principal incidents of the novel. The various characters it exhibits are naturally drawn; and the sentiments and language evince the author to possess the talent of pathetic and elegant composition.

*Henry Somerville, a Tale. By the Author of Hartlebourne Castle.*  
2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Bell. 1797.

This production is interesting as a story, and discovers traits of philosophical discrimination, not frequently to be found in the effusions of novel-writers. Mr. Somerville, a gentleman farmer, of an original and capacious mind, is the neighbour and friend of a Mr. Howard, greatly his superior in birth and fortune, but by whom his integrity and talents are highly respected. Henry, the son of Mr. Somerville, and of a disposition similar to his father, imbibes an affection for miss Harriet Howard; she returns his passion; and after many obstacles from the reluctant family dignity of Mr. Howard, the young couple are united. The character of 'lord Norbury,' a nobleman of understanding and sensibility, and that of 'sir Francis Bloom,' a fashionable debauchee, are exceedingly well drawn. The following sketch of the physiognomy of the latter may serve as a study for the portraits of many luminaries in the *haut ton*.

'Henry paused—he looked twice in the face of his companion—as often he could discover no other than that fallow complexion, the common garb of debauchery, wearing fast away into the vale of wasting strength, which defies the deepest urgency of nature to effect a glow:—he could see in his eye nothing but that watery stillness which succeeds the total loss of manly expression and vivacity—he began to despise him.' Vol. i. p. 88.

The deportment of a genuine lover, and the mysterious workings of the tender passion, are thus characterised—

'The simplicity which miss Howard always observed in her dress in the country was calculated to inspire new devotion in Henry, whose soul was simplicity itself; but his noble and generous spirit,

spirit, ever mistrustful of his own recommendations, dared but suffer his eyes to approach her with respect, while his heart bounded towards her, and seemed already to possess the object of his ardent hopes. His conversation to Mrs. Howard and to any other person was free and gay : to Harriet he was distant, attentive, and silent ; but ready to catch and treasure up every word she expressed.

‘ Whence is that source of awe, of dutious obedience, of distant respect, to her we love ? Whence is that backwardness in ourselves to venture with as much ease to converse on general topics with her as with others ? Ah ! whence is that anxious tremulation of voice and hand, when she first allows us to assist her step, and presses on our nerveless arm as she ascends a carriage ! Oh love ! benign radiance of heaven ! It is thou who thus markest on our soul thy indelible stamp of truth, and weakenest every nerve of manhood in order that thou mayest impress thy seal the deeper without resistance !’ Vol. i. p. 90.

### M E D I C A L.

*An Account of the Experiment made at the Desire of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, on board the Union Hospital Ship, to determine the Effect of the Nitrous Acid in destroying Contagion, and the Safety with which it may be employed. In a Letter addressed to the Right Hon. Earl Spencer, &c. &c. &c. By James Carmichael Smyth, M. D. F. R. S. &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1796.*

In our examination of Dr. Smyth's Tract on the Jail Distemper \*, we had occasion to remark that further trials of the nitrous acid, as a mean of destroying contagion, were necessary. In the present letter, we meet with a full detail of an experiment, instituted with this particular view, on board the Union hospital ship at Sheerness and which is said to have been attended with a degree of success highly flattering to the author of the discovery. The experiment seems to have been ably conducted by Mr. Menzies, who gives the following description of the state of the hospital and the sick on his arrival—

‘ On examining the state of the hospital,’ (says he) ‘ I plainly foresaw that fresh contagion would be daily pouring into it from the Russian vessels, under which disadvantageous circumstance, it would be difficult to decide on the success of our endeavours. The lower and middle gun-decks were divided into large apartments, or wards, by cross partitions, with a free communication between each : they were extremely crowded, and the sick of every description lay in cradles, promiscuously arranged, to the number of nearly two hundred ; of which about one hundred and fifty were in different stages of a malignant fever, extremely contagious, as appeared evident from its rapid progress, and fatal effects, amongst the atten-

\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XIX. p. 368.

dants on the sick, and the ship's company. For, from the beginning of September last, when the Russian sick were first admitted into the hospital, eight nurses and two washer-women had been attacked with this fever, and of these three had died. About twenty-four of the ship's company had likewise been ill of the same disorder, and of these a surgeon's mate and two marines died. Upon the whole, however, the mortality had not been so great as there were reasons to dread, from the virulence of the contagion, and malignity of the disease. P. 9.

The method of performing the fumigation, and the effects which it produced on the sick patients, are described in this clear and concise way—

‘ I first ordered’ (says Mr. Menzies) ‘ all the ports and scuttles to be close shut up; the sand, which had been previously heated in iron pots, was then scooped out into the pipkins by means of an iron ladle, and in this heated sand, in each pipkin, a small tea cup was immersed, containing about half an ounce of concentrated vitriolic acid, to which, after it had acquired a proper degree of heat, an equal quantity of pure nitre in powder was gradually added, and the mixture stirred with a glass spatula, until the vapour arose from it in considerable quantity. The pipkins were then carried through the wards, by the nurses and convalescents, who kept walking about with them in their hands, occasionally putting them under the cradles of the sick, and in every corner where any foul air was suspected to lodge. In this manner we continued fumigating, until the whole space between decks was, fore and aft, filled with the vapour, which appeared like a thick haze.

‘ I however proceeded in this first trial slowly and cautiously, following with my eyes the pipkins in every direction, to watch the effect of the vapour on the sick, and observed that at first it excited a good deal of coughing, but which gradually ceased, in proportion as it became more generally diffused through the wards; this effect appeared indeed to be chiefly occasioned by the ignorance or inattention of those who carried the pipkins, in putting them sometimes too near to the faces of the sick, by which means they suddenly inhaled the strong vapour, as it immediately issued from the cups.

‘ In compliance with doctor Smyth's request, the body-clothes and bed-clothes of the sick were, as much as possible, exposed to the nitrous vapour during the fumigation; and all the dirty linen removed from them was immediately immersed in a tub of cold water, afterwards carried on deck, rinsed out, and hung up till nearly dry, and then fumigated before it was taken to the wash-house: a precaution extremely necessary in every infectious disorder. Due attention was also paid to cleanliness and ventilation.’

P. 11.

Even by the first of these fumigations, we are told that the air of the hospital 'was greatly sweetened.'

The report of the experiments made on board the Russian men of war is not equally complete or satisfactory, though an improvement in the health of the sick, after the commencement of the use of the nitrous vapour, was certainly evident.

The observations of Dr. Smyth on these attempts to ascertain the powers and safety of the nitrous acid in stopping the progress of contagion, are, that

'The present experiment fully justifies all he has said respecting the safety with which the nitrous acid (procured in the manner described) may be employed as a fumigation. "No one surely can say that I assume too much," (continues he) "when I consider the safety of the fumigation as established, after a trial of nearly three months, for an hour and a half or two hours, morning and evening, each day, on board an hospital ship, containing from two to three hundred persons of different sexes, and ages, and labouring under different diseases; without a single instance of permanent inconvenience or bad consequence arising from it: for the slight cough, which it at first excited and which was evidently owing to the awkwardness and ignorance of those who carried the fumigating pipkins, cannot be looked upon as such, and no farther inconvenience has ever been felt by any one on board." p. 49.

Dr. Smyth could not avoid knowing that whatever corrected the putrid smell of the air, must render it more pure: — but that it becomes more fit for the purposes of respiration, solely from the use of the nitrons vapour, is not quite so certain. On opening the scuttles, &c. after the fumigation, a considerable quantity of pure air must necessarily be supplied by the surrounding atmosphere, to which at least a part of the effect must probably be ascribed.

The experiments here detailed have unquestionably considerable weight; but the variable nature of contagion renders more experience necessary, before a final judgment can be passed on the utility of Dr. Smyth's discovery.

*An Introductory Lecture to a Course of Chemistry: read at the Laboratory in Oxford, on February 7, 1797, by Robert Bourne, M. D. &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1797.*

This, like most tracts of the kind, principally treats of the utility of the science, and the objects which the lecturer has in view. However, in tracing the origin and progress of chemistry, the professor speaks with a becoming diffidence and modesty, and chiefly dwells on two points, — the application of it in the arts and manufactures, and in the business of agriculture.

On the latter he thus observes —

'Agriculture, the other great source of our national prosperity, has

has also an intimate connexion with the science, the utility of which I am endeavouring to shew. Chemistry has ascertained the number and nature of the different earths which enter into the composition of soils, and has laid down easy rules by which they may be distinguished from one another, and the proportion of each be accurately known. Hence there is every reason to suppose, that it may be resorted to, as a much surer method of determining the quality of soils, than the eye or the taste of a land-surveyor: for the basis of every soil is an admixture of these earths in certain proportions. The presence of vegetable substances in a soil is, we know, necessary to fertility; but chemistry detects these, likewise, and proportions them with accuracy. I am aware that the goodness of a soil, and its fitness for one or another sort of culture, must depend upon other circumstances, as well as upon the proportion of the component parts of the soil itself. Its situation as high or low, its exposure to sun and wind, the subjacent strata, and more particulars must be taken into the account. But these must be taken, equally, into the account, in either mode of judging of the quality of soils; and, with respect to the nature of the subjacent strata, that can be best determined by chemical means.

‘The general operation of manures, and the peculiar fitness of this or that manure for this or that particular soil, are not so well understood as might be wished. Some light has been thrown, and much more may be, on this important part of husbandry, by ascertaining the quality of soils, in the manner above alluded to, with philosophical exactness. From the prevalence of one constituent part of a soil, and the small proportion of another, we might, in many instances, judge, *a priori*, what kind of manure was best suited to the soil under consideration; or, at all events, when the best manure had been determined by experience, the fact might be made extensively useful to the present, and to future generations, because the exact nature of the soil could be stated, with unerring precision. Thus agriculture, with the aid which chemistry is ready to lend it, may, in future times, be conducted upon sure scientific principles.’  
P. 20.

This lecture seems, on the whole, to have been well calculated to impress the hearers with a favourable idea of the importance and utility of the acquisition of chemical knowledge.

#### MISCELLANEOUS.

*Roman Conversations; or a short Description of the Antiquities of Rome: interspersed with Characters of Eminent Romans; and Reflections, Religious and Moral, on Roman History. By the late Joseph Wilcocks, F. S. A. The Second Edition, corrected: with a Preface, containing some Account of the Author: also a Translation of the Quotations, a general Index, and a Plan of Rome. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Bickerstaff. 1797.*

This publication has been already noticed in our Review for



June, 1792. The favourable reception which it has met from the public is a sufficient proof of the general merit of its contents. If the author does not aim at the greater embellishments of style and language, he amply compensates by a judicious selection of objects, a proper discrimination of Roman virtues, and patriotic exhortations to his young companions in Italy to perform the duty of British senators. How are the times altered since these Conversations took place? What has now the young senator to do but to give his silent vote, and to acquiesce in every measure drawn up in another place, and introduced into the senate for the form merely of approbation? How shall we excite the youthful mind to emulate Roman virtue, when there seems to be no longer the theatre in Britain for the display of those energies which once distinguished the Roman and the British senates? These Conversations will, however, show to a noble youth what his tutorer would formerly have impressed upon his mind: and if his heart no longer glows with enthusiastic patriotism, he will still know what were the sentiments of his fathers. This edition is improved by the translation of the quotations, and the Index, and will be a useful companion to every young man on his tour through Italy.

*Tables for accurately ascertaining, by Weight or Measure, the Strength of Spirituous Liquors, from 30° to 85° of Temperature. With an Introduction, describing the Principles of the Tables by a variety of Examples. By John Wilson. 2mo. 2s. sewed. Robinsons. 1796.*

To do justice between the excise and the merchant, the merchant and the country dealer, the country dealer and the consumer, is in many articles a very difficult task, and perhaps in none more so than in spirituous liquors. That the quantity and quality should be taxed exactly as the act directs, requires, perhaps, a much greater degree of care and circumspection than it is in the power of the persons commissioned to superintend the payment of the tax, to bestow upon such an article; and to detect the frauds committed by the merchant or the waggoner, somewhat more of knowledge is required than falls to the share of the generality of country dealers. To make this subject, therefore, easy to the different parties concerned in the commerce of spirituous liquors, is a benefit to the public, which the author of this treatise had chiefly in view; and at the same time to make more generally known the very accurate experiments of sir Charles Blagden, recorded in the Philosophical Transactions, on alcohol and its various combinations with water, in almost every degree of natural temperature.

In the execution of this design, the author has succeeded. The introduction begins with a plain and easy account of the experiments used to determine the specific gravity of pure spirit, or alcohol:—from which it proceeds to state very satisfactory objections to the

the standard called proof spirit, to which most of the regulations of the excise have been referred. Separate sections are next given to the following heads: Water — Alcohol — Thermometer — Weighing Bottle — Balance and Weights — Drawing Samples of Spirits, — in which are very useful directions given to all dealers, with instances of the application of the tables. We shall select one instance, which is of great importance to country dealers —

‘ The following example is contrived to show the use of the table and weighing bottle, in detecting frauds practised on spirits either by sea or land carriage :

‘ EXAMPLE.

‘ A dealer in spirits, disposes of a puncheon of rum to a customer in the country ; the puncheon contained 110 gallons at the temperature of 50°, at which temperature the bottle proof was equal to 54036 grains per gallon, being equivalent to 53795 grains per gallon at standard heat. Now, supposing the rum was sold at the rate of 15s. per gallon of standard spirit, the standard spirit by table is in the proportion of 61,606 per cent. consequently the puncheon contained 67,76 gallons, and the value at 15s. is 50l. 16s. 6d.

‘ Previous to delivery of the puncheon to the waggoner, its gross weight was taken, and communicated to him, as a check, which he knew how to evade, by piercing the cask at his convenience, and running off the quantity of spirit he thought proper, which he weighed, and then poured into the puncheon an equal weight of water. At the place of delivery, the customer finds the gross weight perfectly right ; however, he immediately proves the contents of the puncheon by means of the weighing bottle, which suppose in temperature at 46°, gives the gallon to be 54713 grains, equal to 54385 grains at 60°, consequently the spirit was reduced to 56,365 per cent. supposing the measure undiminished, then 110 gallons would contain 62 gallons standard spirit at 15s. = 46l. 10s. Loss 4l. 16s. 6d. But the original measure of spirit would sustain a diminution in proportion to the water added, and that of spirit abstracted, besides additional loss in measure, the effects of penetration. To discover these particulars, take the supposed loss in standard spirit, viz. 5,76 gallons, which raise to its proportional measure of original spirit thus, as 61,606 : 100 :: 5,76 : 9,35 gallons of rum run off ; which quotient multiplied into 53795 (weight per gallon on delivery to the waggoner) = 502983 grains of water added, which divided by 58484, gives 8,60 gallons of water by measure ; deduct proportional penetration, viz. 101, there remains 8,50, which deduct from 9,35, and the loss of measure on the whole appears to be .85 part of one gallon. Now, the value per gallon of the compound spirit is, as 100 : 61,606 :: 15 : 9,24 near 9s. 3d. each gallon ; then, 85 × 9,24 = 7,85

= 7,85 = 7s. 10d. as a further charge against the waggoner. It is plain the customer only receives 110 — ,85 = 109,15 gallons; then as 100 : 56,365 :: 109,15 : 46l. 2s. 10d. otherwise, as 100 : 56,365 :: 15 : 8,4547 = 8s. 5½d. nearly per gallon; then as 1 : 8,4547 :: 109,15 : 922,836 = 46l. 2s. 10d. which sum deducted from the first cost, 50l. 16s. 6d. gives the loss sustained to be 4l. 13s. 8d.

‘ When such accurate means of detecting frauds in the spirit business are generally known, the expence of double caseing spirits will be rendered unnecessary; by the same means country dealers and private families are enabled to guard themselves against imposition, in the strength of any spirituous liquors sent them.’ P. 62.

The tables give the specific gravity and weight in grains per gallon of standard spirit and distilled water in different degrees of heat, from 30° to 85°, as also of the combination of 100 parts of water with different parts of spirit, from one to a hundred; and of the combination of 100 parts of spirit with parts of water, from one to a hundred, in degrees of heat from 30 to 85. The whole forms a very useful publication for all persons concerned in spirituous liquors, or who, as philosophers, have not convenient access to the Philosophical Transactions.

*Valuable and interesting Communications, 4to. 7s. 6d. Walker.*  
1797.

This pamphlet consists of miscellaneous hints respecting new books, republications of old ones, lives, memoirs, schemes commercial and agricultural, paintings, magazines, machines, &c. &c. We cannot give a better idea of the *variety* of its contents than by the following extract —

‘ Publish at the close of each year, a Review of the Literature of the last year. Give a faithful, impartial, and just account of the most distinguished publications throughout the whole range of English literature, with selections (of course) from many of them. A work of this kind would be well received in every library, if written with the same propriety and spirit as hath pervaded of late years the short Review of Literature yearly inserted in the new Annual Register.

‘ Publish interesting Historical Anecdotes of Occurrences, that have happened in the streets of London — similar to that well written, and most interesting book (now very scarce) called “Anecdotes des Rues de Paris.”

‘ Publish a Lady’s Weekly Newspaper. We have lady’s Magazines; and why not a newspaper, adapted to the female mind, to female pursuits?

‘ Some clergyman (or others) should publish, a Tract on the Monuments, Painted Glafs, and other local interesting occurrences in the churches, and secluded villages of other counties in the same beautiful,

beautiful, moral, and very interesting style, as the rev. Mr. Parsons, of Wye, has lately done for the county of Kent, and for which work, see the Month. Rev. for Nov. 1795. p. 14.

*A History or Description, general and circumstantial, of Burghley House, the Seat of the Right Hon. the Earl of Exeter.* 8vo. 5s. Boards. Longman. 1797.

If we should be disposed to adopt the author's opinion of the merits of his production, we should pronounce it an elegant, accurate, and masterly performance. But, as we presume to judge for ourselves, we shall not flatter his vanity by implicit approbation.

The seat which he describes has long been admired. It is, externally, a magnificent structure; and its internal decorations are costly and splendid. It was built for the lord-treasurer Burghley, under the direction of John Thorpe, who chiefly followed that mixed style which intervened between Gothic and Grecian architecture. The east side of the middle court bears the date of 1585.

The paintings at this mansion are numerous; and many of them are pieces of great merit and value. Among these, are two representations of the dead Christ, by Carlo Maratti and Vandvck; the death of Seneca, by Luca Jordano; the finding of Moses, by Titian; the Cumæan Sibyl, by Guido; St. John and other holy personages, by Parmegiano; the Virgin Mary and her son, by Leonardo da Vinci; Christ blessing the elements, by Carlo Dolci; and various pieces by Reubens and other masters.

In giving an account of the different objects which attract the notice of the visitants of the house of his patron, the author has introduced no small portion of superfluous matter. His style is affected and inaccurate: his remarks are sometimes puerile; and his arrangement is not the most judicious.

*A Collection of Welch Tours: or, a Display of the Beauties of Wales, selected principally from celebrated Histories and popular Tours. With occasional Remarks.* 12mo. 5s. Boards. Sacl. 1797.

These Tours exhibit a pleasing epitome of those charming scenes which well deserve the more amplified descriptions of the traveller, whose taste and sensibilities have been gratified by the most lovely aspects of nature. The engravings, though called *fine* in the title-page, are in fact for the most part very indifferently executed: but they have the merit of correctly delineating the proposed objects.

*The Travels of Anacharsis the Younger in Greece, during the Middle of the Fourth Century before the Christian Era. Abridged from the original Work of the Abbé Barthelemi. Illustrated with Plates.* 8vo. 8s. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1797.

As the interesting work of M. Barthelemi is too voluminous for the generality of readers, many will be pleased with an epitome of it. The compiler of this abridgement has aimed at the selection,

lection, not only of the most important, but also of the most attractive and entertaining parts of the work. In lieu of the first volume of the original, which is only introductory to the Travels, he has given a chronological summary of the most remarkable events of the Grecian history, to the 365d year before the birth of Christ. He has annexed a map of Greece; and has embellished his humble labours with some engravings, from which we cannot withhold the praise of elegance.

Of this *epitome* we may justly observe, that the execution does not surpass mediocrity; but it may serve to convey useful information and innocent entertainment.

*Remarks on Boswell's Life of Johnson, including the real History of the Gold Medal, given to the Author of the Tragedy of Douglas, By Edward Athenry Whyte, &c. &c. 8vo. Marchbank. Dublin. 1797.*

This pamphleteer is offended with Mr. Boswell for having 'unnecessarily, and on most occasions unwarrantably,' introduced into his life of Dr. Johnson, strictures on the character and conduct of Mr. Sheridan, the late tragedian and rhetorician. He has therefore undertaken the defence of the assailed individual, in which he is not wholly unsuccessful, though he does not excel as a writer. With regard to the medal, he states, that Mr. Sheridan, when he brought forward the tragedy of Douglas at the Dublin theatre, declared his intention of giving the author the usual chance of profit, as if the piece had originally been represented on that stage; but, the third night (in consequence of a spirit of party) proving unproductive even of a sufficient sum for defraying the expences of the house, the manager, not from motives of ostentation, but merely from a desire of making some compensation for his having raised fruitless expectations in the mind of the writer, presented him with a gold medal; an act of liberality for which Johnson accused Sheridan of counterfeiting Apollo's coin.

That the reader may not forget the professional pretensions of Mr. Whyte, he has annexed to his pamphlet a syllabus (not very well digested) of his philosophical lectures.

*Mental Amusement: consisting of Moral Essays, Allegories, and Tales. Interspersed with Poetical Pieces, by different Writers: (now first published.) calculated for the Use of private Families and public Schools. 12mo. 2s. Bound. Sael. 1797.*

The prose pieces in this little volume, though they are not distinguished by originality of genius, or energy of sentiment, have a moral tendency and sprightliness that render them fit for the perusal of the youth of both sexes. The selections are taken from the most celebrated modern poets.



# A P P E N D I X

TO THE

TWENTIETH VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

## CRITICAL REVIEW.

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### FOREIGN ARTICLES.

*Ideen ueber die Politik, den Verkehr, und den Handel der vornehmsten Voelker der alten Welt, von A. H. L. Heeren. Goettingen. 1796.*

*Ideas on the Policy, the Intercourse, and the Trade of the principal Nations of Antiquity. By A. H. L. Heeren. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Imported by Escher.*

IT is the misfortune of a classical education, that in our early years we are seldom taught to entertain just notions of the principal events which are the basis of our studies. We read of the great heroes and heroines, the gods and demigods of antiquity; we are filled with strange stories of their deeds and misdeeds; our imaginations are inflamed, but our judgment is not informed. The ancient is an ideal world to us, and remains so to most people for the remainder of their lives. They can quote from Homer, Hesiod, and Ovid; but in vain do we ask them, what causes led to the rise and fall of particular states? what were their particular advantages and disadvantages? what were their general intercourse and trade with each other? These questions scarcely enter into their thoughts: they are contented to know that Greece distinguished itself by the splendour of its orators and writers, and by the grandeur of military achievements; that it gave way to the powerful arms of Rome, which, by overcoming its rival in Africa, paved the way for universal dominion. Not so our German author. He has read, like many of his coun-

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trymen,

trymen, the ancient writers, with a view to obtain precise ideas on particular subjects; and these subjects he has investigated with that soundness of judgment and patience of research, for which his nation is distinguished. By a proper comparison of the remains of ancient writers with the accounts given by modern travellers, he has been enabled to throw light on many (formerly very obscure) points of history, and, throughout, to do justice to him who has been called its father. Herodotus has, by some critics, been suspected of fiction, and a love of the marvellous, on many occasions in which he is now justified; and every man who wishes to obtain clear ideas of those once interesting nations whose memory is almost lost in the confusion of modern times, will find many valuable sources of information and amusement in the work before us.

The work is divided into two parts. In the first is given an account of the principal nations in Africa; in the second, of those in Asia. A third part the author gives us reason to expect, which will contain a similar account of the chief nations of ancient Europe. The African nations subjected to inquiry, are the Carthaginians, the Ethiopians, and Egyptians.

Preparatory to the several histories, are some judicious reflections, to correct the prejudices of those who judge of the ancient world from what, in the present times, is passing before their eyes, or from the confused notions which they have gained at school. Thus we have been accustomed to think, that in the old world there was nothing but fighting; every man had arms in his hands; and, because there were heroes at the siege of Troy, we think little of the journeys of the caravans at that time in the north of Africa, or the great trade carried on between Asia and Africa, by means of the Ethiopians. Another prejudice to be corrected in those who have paid some attention to the trade and intercourse of ancient nations, is the disregard to the variety of changes which took place in these respects in different periods of time. At one period the intercourse was brisk and lively; at another it was interrupted; at a third it was carried on by new channels; and, without continual attention, these states will be confounded together, and little or no information will be derived from the ancient historians. From our modern notions of trade, we are led to think that it must depend very materially, if not wholly, upon navigation; and that we now conceive to be the most commercial nation, which has the greatest number of ships at its service. But it was not so in the ancient world. Navigation was imperfect; but, if it had been in the highest state of perfection, it would, in that period of history, have

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tended very little to increase the intercourse of nations. The inland parts of Asia were the chief seats of trade; and the advantage of carrying goods with greater or less dispatch from one coast to the other of the Mediterranean, would have scarcely produced a sensible effect on the trade of the world. The difference between ancient and modern traffic, must be accurately understood, before we can form a judgment of the increase or decrease of trade at different times. Traffic in money distinguishes the modern, traffic in wares the ancient world. Of the former, the ancients seem to have had a very imperfect notion; and consequently there was a greater necessity for the merchant to have personal intercourse with the nations to which his wares were sent; and they could scarcely form an idea of a merchant like ours, sitting in his counting-house, and regulating the exchanges for the principal towns in Europe. Yet, great as this advantage is, our writer will not allow it to be doubtful, that, if it were not for America, the balance of trade would be in favour of antiquity. To judge of the ancient trade of Africa, we must attend particularly to the face of the country. It does not seem to have undergone very great changes. The same tracts of desert sand remain as heretofore; and by them must the intercourse between the Mediterranean, the Red Sea, and the interior parts of Africa, have been directed. It is true that the Carthaginians sailed round this quarter of the world: but they did not thence determine its magnitude; nor was the voyage attended with any circumstances to alter the established mode of intercourse.

The republic of Carthage is the first object of our author's researches. From the scanty materials left us on this once powerful state,—and interesting to an Englishman, as prepared for its fall by the same symptoms which are visible in our finances and senate,—a very good account is given of its territory at home and abroad, of its commerce by sea and land, of its constitution, and of its wars with Rome, which terminated in its complete destruction. Aristotle affords the best insight into its form of government, which was an aristocracy; and of this the Greeks and Romans naturally give a different account; the one comparing the *suffetes*, or שופטים, to the kings of Sparta, the others to the consuls of Rome. The probability is, that the only resemblance consisted in these officers being at the heads of their respective states; but we are ignorant of the extent or limitations of their power. The principal parts of the Carthaginian constitution were the *suffetes*, the senate, the council of hundred, and the assembly of the people. To the last, the *suffetes* and senate had the power of bringing certain questions; and it also elected the *suffetes* and the generals; but the duration and firmness of



the constitution were owing to the council of hundred, an institution which, under different names, is found in all aristocratical governments: thus, Sparta had its ephori, Venice its *consiglio de' dieci*. Our limits do not permit us to notice all the peculiarities in the power of this council, or the consequences of separating the military power from the suffetes, and making it unlimited in the generals: but the downfall of the constitution was owing to some striking causes, which are summed up concisely in the following words —

“ The cause of the downfall of the Carthaginian constitution in its last period lay partly in the diminished respectability of the senate, and the increasing power of the popular party, conducted by ambitious demagogues, and partly in the tyranny of the council of hundred. A democracy and oligarchy were forming themselves at the same time in Carthage,—two evils, which, how opposite soever they seem to be, in general accompany each other. The destructive consequences of both appeared most in the conduct of the finances, into which, as they were entirely in the hands of the council, the usual abuses crept; and perhaps this monopoly was a still greater evil than the actual mismanagement of them.”

On the trade of the Carthaginians, our author's inquiries, notwithstanding the little insight given by any writer except Herodotus, are very successful. On the trade by land, the father of history is our only guide; and it is curious to observe with what exactness he has given the route of the caravans, a route followed in great measure in the present days. The trade with the inner part of Africa consisted in four things; salt, dates, gold dust, and slaves. Salt is a necessary article in many parts; and, in the vast deserts, it is found in immense rocks, or at the bottom of dried lakes. In the fourth book of Herodotus, the route of the caravans which conveyed these different articles from one place to another, is laid down.

“ There were three grand roads, which traversed, in three different directions, the northern part of Africa. The caravans went from upper Egypt to the Niger, thence to Carthage, thence again to the upper Egypt. In the salt countries of the desert, they loaded their camels, which they exchanged in Negroland for slaves and gold dust; and, in one part of their route in the land of the Garamantes, they found the chalcidonyx, which, worked into drinking vessels, formed a considerable article of trade. To this day the inhabitants of Fez are distinguished for their experience in commerce; and they carry it on from the mouth of the Niger to the middle of India.”

If our materials for the history of Carthage are scanty, still greater are the defects in that of the Ethiopians. The blameless character given to them by Homer, clearly shows some striking peculiarity, which our author, not without reason, ascribes to the priestly cast, whose offices were divided between religion and trade. It is evident, from many circumstances, that the cast of priests had very great influence: the singular power enjoyed by them of electing the king, and ordaining him, according to their caprice, under the fiction of the order of heaven, to die, evidently proves that the whole government was in their hands; and as they appear to have used their power for the beneficial purposes of trade, it seems to be the only country which has been benefited by this strange species of authority. From the travels of Bruce, we find that the manners of Ethiopia have suffered much less alteration than its religion: but, after all our researches, it is very difficult, to settle the precise limits of the countries of the Troglodytæ, the Macrobii, and the Ichthyophagi. Meroë, near the present Chandi, at  $17^{\circ}$  lat. and  $52^{\circ} 30'$ , long. was the capital of the priestly cast; the Oases were colonies, and the temples were a security for their warehouses: and the latter seems a probable supposition, since Meroë, Thebes in upper Egypt, and the temple of Jupiter Ammon in the desert, were equally celebrated for their temples and the resort of the caravans. By these the intercourse was kept up between the south of Asia, and the northern and innermost parts of Africa. Meroë was the grand emporium for Africa, the seat of the ruling cast: a chain of ruins from the Indian Sea to the Mediterranean shows one track of the caravans: Azab and Axum were in the road between Arabia Felix and Meroë; Thebes and Ammonium between Meroë, Egypt, and Carthage.

We come now to the country on which the eyes of all antiquity were directed, and which has excited nearly equal curiosity in modern times. The situation of Egypt, with the remarkable properties of the Nile, its chief boast, naturally rendered the manners of its inhabitants different from those of the surrounding countries. The account of this region is divided into two parts,—its state before and after Psammetichus. The former period is the more interesting, because in that we are to look for the origin of its most remarkable institutions. The inhabitants from whom these institutions sprang, were, in our author's opinion, of negro origin; but they were not the only inhabitants of the country: from the surrounding Nomades, as well as Arabia, there was a great influx of strangers, which occasioned the division into casts, so remarkable in this country. The priestly cast was the most noble; and their influence upon the state shows clearly whence they

came. The nature of the country made a different mode of life necessary from that of the surrounding tribes, whether shepherds or hunters. The overflowings of the Nile directed the policy of the priests to agriculture, and induced them to encourage a contempt for the pastoral life. The whole policy of Egypt was thus built upon the two great institutions, the division of the people into casts, and the country into nomes. For the peculiar division into casts, we must look to the nature of the country. The priestly cast had, indeed, the superiority from the original prejudice in its favour throughout Africa; the ranks of the other casts were owing to peculiar necessity and circumstances. Authors differ on the number of these casts; Herodotus makes seven, Diodorus only five; but the former, as an eye-witness, deserves the greater credit. The cast of priests was the most important, — important not only on account of the worship paid in their temples, but for their territorial acquisitions: and on the latter account we see at once the reason why a priest of one temple was not permitted to officiate in another, since the admission of him would have entitled him to some share of their lands and trade. Besides, these priests were not to be considered merely as sacred personages: they were the physicians, the geometers, the instructors of the people. We cannot follow our author throughout his very interesting account of these casts; but he sums up the whole in the following manner—

‘The Egyptian casts were originally tribes of people, and chiefly domestic tribes, except the cast of the priests, who probably emigrated into Egypt as a tribe accustomed to cultivated manners. The division into casts was grounded on the nature of the country, encouraged by the policy of the ruling tribe, which, by these means, extended and established its power. The general division must have suffered many changes by political revolutions, which can no longer be ascertained. It cannot be proved; nor is it very probable, that this division was the same in all the early Egyptian states; its complete formation, and the shape in which we are acquainted with it, seem to have been settled at the union of Egypt into one kingdom.’

The division into nomes was of a very early date, in the time of the Pharaohs; and it remained during the age of the Ptolemys and the Romans. For the origin of this division we must look to Herodotus; and we may trace it to nearly the same cause as the division into casts,—the policy of the hierarchy. Each nome had its peculiar worship, and hence we may reasonably suppose that at different times a colony of priests had taken possession of a peculiar district; and at the union

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this difference of worship remained, and served to distinguish the territories of the sacred order. The number of these nomes cannot now be ascertained; and probably it varied considerably in different periods from the increasing cultivation of the country. However great was the authority of the priests, still it is remarkable that the kingly government prevailed in every district, limited indeed by the sacred order, and consequently liable to the disputes which must always arise between these two powers when they are nearly upon an equality. The building of the pyramids gave umbrage to the priests; and the kings were hence naturally represented as the worst of tyrants.

Deep are the researches of many writers into the causes of that multiplicity of gods, and the baseness of religious worship, in Egypt. Our author, with great propriety, is less refined in his sentiments. The worship came with the priests out of the interior of Africa. Childish fancy and stupid fear idolised first one animal, then another; and the animal which pleased the fancy of the tribe that emigrated, remained the object of its worship in the nome in which it settled. The other gods, whether referred to astronomy or the Nile, were gradually introduced; and, from the general advantages of the river, they would become general objects of national worship. The change of the inhabitants from pastoral life to agriculture made Egypt very early the great emporium of trade: its river, the fertility of its soil, and the settled life of its inhabitants, directed them to commerce and manufactures. In the art of weaving they excelled; and it was a granary for corn for the neighbouring nations.

By the union under Psammetichus, Egypt became, for above a hundred years, a most flourishing country. The influence of the priests was restrained by the superior splendour of the regal power; and, when the Persians invaded the country, and perpetrated such cruel outrages against religion, it is probable, according to our author's opinion, that these cruelties were not so much the consequences of religious opinions, as of the absolute necessity to bring the priestly order under subjection. This revolution, without doubt, was highly injurious to the prosperity of Egypt, as it interrupted the commerce by sea, which, by the strangers encouraged by Psammetichus and his successors, was introduced into the kingdom: but when Herodotus, about thirty years after the death of Darius, travelled through the country, the caravan trade into Libya and Ethiopia was not only restored, but flourishing; and the invasion of the Persians opened the way for a new trade, which spread itself into the inner parts of Asia.

In the second volume, we have the author's remarks on the

chief Asiatic nations,—the Persians, Phœnicians, Babylonians, Scythians; some general reflections being prefixed, to give us a clue to the intercourse of Asia. Here man appears under a different aspect. It seems to be his native home. A wider theatre is displayed for his exertions, and he does not sink so low as his brethren of Africa. Deserts there are, but not of so great extent;—immense chains of mountains, and between them immense plains. A view of the natural situation of each country almost determines the degree of its intercourse with the neighbouring nations. Every thing seems to be upon a larger scale. We meet with revolutions, at certain periods, from the union of roving tribes, which, settling in the conquered countries, sink under that unlimited despotism, characterising Asia,—and polygamy, which is the parent of political slavery. In this region, as in Africa, commerce was carried on chiefly by land or immense rivers; and the danger of travelling rendered caravans equally necessary. The political revolutions made very little change in commercial intercourse. Nature points out the places where it would be the greatest: the Babylonian territory, from its boundaries, the Euphrates and the Tigris; the region by the Oxus, Bactra, and Samarcand; and, lastly, the coasts of the Black Sea and the Mediterranean. The articles of commerce in this country are numerous, and the intercourse must necessarily have been great: the wool from the Black Sea, the spices of Arabia, the cottons of India, the gold from the Siberian mountains, must, with a variety of inferior articles for the luxury of Asiatic courts, have given constant employment to the enterprising spirit of trade.

The Persians were originally a roving nation, living in the mountains; and when they descended into the plains, and filled Asia with the splendour of their achievements, they were not, without difficulty, to be brought into the necessary subordination of regular government. The division of their country into satrapies was, like the divisions of our feudal governments, admirably suited for a barbarous people; and the account of these satrapies, which takes up the greater part of this section, is very well given by our author. His inquiries into the remains of Persopolis throw great light upon the subject; and his contrast of the Persian and Egyptian architecture is ingenious.

‘The Persian architecture’ (says he) ‘seems to be diametrically opposite to that of Egypt, with which it is so often absurdly compared. If I do not err, we may see in both the original mode of life of the two nations. On viewing the Egyptian buildings, the observer is forced on the remark, that every thing is formed to resemble grottos and holes, and that

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a nation of Troglodytes must have been the builders. The colossal temples at Thebes and Syene are indisputably the types of excavated rocks; the thick and short pillars grew out of the props which they were obliged to leave in their holes: in every thing is the image of oppressive weight and counter-resistance. On the contrary, at Persepolis it seems that the people could never have lived in the holes of the mountains; but, free and unrestrained, wandered on the heights and in the woods; and when they chose a fixed habitation, they would, in their buildings, restrain as little as possible their original freedom. Their terraces, their forest of pillars, with their basins, in which, without doubt, were cooling streams, their steps, which at present the loaded camels of the Arabians mount as easily as their conductors, all give the character of the smiling landscape, which the art of the Persians formed into paradises, just as the colossal temples of Egypt resemble their original holes in the rocks. As in Egypt every thing looks dreary and oppressive, here all is free and open; in beautiful harmony with the character of the nation, which made the sun, the elements, and the open roof of heaven, the objects of its adoration.

The description of the satrapies is followed by an accurate delineation of the Persian constitution; and, in this, of the religion of Zoroaster, with the influence of the Magi upon the empire. The belief of a good and bad principle, which forms the basis of this religion, had probably a higher origin than Zoroaster; the formation of it into a system was perhaps due to him; and the constitution of his hierarchy is suited to the despotism of his country. Our readers are too well acquainted with this system, for us to dwell upon it, or to make further remarks on our author's observations upon the court of Persia, the management of its revenues, the luxury of its females, or the numerous armies brought by the monarchs into the field: suffice it to intimate, that nothing has been left untouched which could, from any ancient writer, throw light upon these subjects.

The Phœnicians afford materials for the next section. Their small continental territory, remote colonies, extensive trade, improved manufactures, are amply investigated. The disputes on Tarshish and Ophir are well known. Our author supposes them to have been both tracts of country, like our East and West Indies, and that Tarshish was the then rich region in the south of Spain; Ophir, an equally rich country to the southern parts of Arabia and Africa. The articles of commerce of this enterprising people are well enumerated by the prophet Ezekiel; and the countries whence they came, show clearly

clearly the nature of the intercourse between the different parts of the then known world.

The Babylonians come next under our review; and the great plain between the two rivers forms an interesting object of our author's inquiries. The fertility of the soil, assisted by the industry and skill of the inhabitants in making canals and watering their lands, together with the admirable situation of Babylon, will easily account for the wonders related of this great city. But we may add the judicious remark of our author, that the property of Asiatic despotism to concentrate the efforts of a whole nation on one place, ought to make credible what, to our meaner attempts, seems impossible. From just critical inquiries, the account given by Herodotus will no longer appear incredible.

'The wonders which he relates of Babylon, are told also of other chief cities in Asia, by persons, like himself, eye-witnesses of their greatness. The circle of our experience ought not to be made the standard for what may have been done in other lands, under another sky, and other circumstances. If the Egyptian pyramids, the wall of China, the rock temples at Elephanta, were not still in existence, our critics would laugh at the relation of them, from their folly in attempting to determine the limits to the united power of whole nations. It is the property of great despotical kingdoms, which at all times have prevailed in Asia, that they can concentrate upon a single object more strength than limited governments; and, from the power of bringing together distant nations, and the ease of subsistence in fruitful territories, may undertake much greater designs than can be entertained in Europe.'

The description of Babylon forms a considerable feature in this section. The history of its trade to the island of Ceylon,—its ruin, from the jealousy of the Persians in making such immense dams across the rivers,—the nature of the articles and manufactures in the flourishing period of Babylon,—every part is brought before the reader in the most instructive and interesting manner.

The Scythian nations are the last objects of inquiry. Herodotus is here, as elsewhere, our conductor. The intercourse with the northern part of Asia is well described; and as good an account is given of our ancestors, as the limits assigned to this part of the history would admit. But we are in danger of going beyond our limits, and must therefore bring this article to a conclusion, by recommending the work in general to our readers, as peculiarly distinguished for accuracy of research, judicious arrangement, and ease of composition.

*Histoire,*

*Histoire, ou Anecdotes, sur la Révolution de Russie, en l'Année 1762.* Paris.

*The History, or Anecdotes, of the Revolution in Russia, in the Year 1762. By M. de Rulhière. 8vo. 5s. Bound. Imported by De Boffe. 1797.*

'I Was present at the revolution which precipitated from the throne of Russia the grandson of Peter the Great, to make way for a stranger. I saw that princess, on the day that she escaped from the palace as a fugitive, compel her husband to abandon his life and empire to her will. I knew all the actors in this horrible scene, amidst the dangers of which all the resources of courage and genius were displayed; and having no personal interest in these occurrences, travelling to acquire knowledge respecting different governments, I considered it as a piece of good fortune to have witnessed one of those rare events which characterise a nation, and in which the human mind displays itself at full length.'

It appears from a note of the editor, that M. Rulhière, the writer of this singular history, had sketched it at the request of the countess of Égmont, the daughter of the duke of Richelieu, whom he attended in the quality of gentleman.

The existence of this manuscript, which was read at the time in various circles at Paris, and eventually at the court of France, came to the knowledge of the empress, who, by her agents, offered the author considerable sums to suppress the work; which were refused. Finding that money was ineffectual, she had recourse to terror, and, by means of her influence with the duke d'Aiguillon, and M. de Sartine, then Lieutenant of the police, caused M. Rulhière to be threatened with the Bastille in case of refusal. The king's brother, having been informed of the affair, saved M. Rulhière from further persecution, by taking him under his protection, and, after promoting him to the place of his secretary, gave him that of historiographer to the office of foreign affairs, with orders to write the history of the troubles of Poland; and M. de Choiseul sent him to reside for some time in that country.

The agents of the empress renewed their offers to M. Rulhière, promising him thirty thousand livres if he would suppress certain things which might, if rendered public, do injury to their sovereign. He refused the money, but engaged his honour that the work should not appear during the life of the empress. M. de Montmorin, on the death of M. Rulhière in 1791, endeavoured to persuade his brother to pay a visit to Mr. Grim, who was charged with the private affairs of the empress at Paris, assuring him that he might reap con-



siderable advantage from this manuscript. But he remained faithful to the engagements which he had taken with his brother; and, although the journals had often announced that a history of the revolution of Russia was about to appear, the heirs of M. Rulhière waited till the death of the empress, before they would dispose of the manuscript which was deposited in their hands.

Two letters, written by M. Rulhière to the countess of Egmont at different epochs, are offered as vouchers to authenticate the facts contained in this narration. From these letters it appears, that a residence of fifteen months, which M. Rulhière made at Petersburg, in the suite of the minister plenipotentiary of France, M. de Breteuil, with whom he lived in habits of intimacy, gave him the means of becoming fully acquainted with all the secrets with which that minister was entrusted, who had the good fortune at the time to engage the confidence of all parties, and to be on the most amicable terms with the two chief friends of the empress. He also obtained information from various other persons, particularly M. D'Agénfrets, who had resided in Russia from the last year of Peter the First, as secretary to eleven successive ambassadors of the court of Vienna. Many of the anecdotes were communicated to M. Rulhière by Marshal Munich; and he had also some acquaintance with one of the principal heroines of the history, the princess D'Aschekoff, and with the commander in chief of the artillery, M. Villebois. He names, he says, no persons whom he has not personally known; and even the day of the revolution he passed either in the public places, or in the best informed societies. Some of the anecdotes he learned from the ambassador of Vienna, M. de Meny, to whom the empress herself related them; others he obtained, a few days after the revolution, from Michel, valet de chambre to the empress; and that which was the most singular of the whole, the conversation of the empress in her cabinet with her minister, he heard from a person of consideration, to whom it was repeated by the minister himself.

To these authorities he subjoins that of the late king of Sweden, who, he observes, was not unpractised himself in the art of revolutions,—whose father had been guardian of Peter the Third, and afterwards owed him his crown. That prince, the late king of Sweden, says M. Rulhière in the conclusion of his second letter to the countess of Egmont, 'who, during his abode at Paris, was connected with you by a friendship equally honourable to both, told me in presence of the count de Creutz, his ambassador at the court of Versailles, and of the count of Lewenhorp, marechal de camp in the service of

of France, that the account of the revolution sent to the senate of Sweden was exactly conformable to my recital.'

The testimonies thus offered by the author in evidence of the authenticity of his memoirs, and those which relate to the suppression of their publication till the present period, carry with them every mark of truth and fidelity.

M. Rulhière begins his account of the revolution by a summary view of the previous history of the late empress, who, as princess Catharine d'Anhalt-Zerbst, passed the first years of her life in a state of comparative obscurity, living with her father, who was sovereign of a little state, and general in the service of the king of Prussia, in a garrisoned town, where the only marks of distinction she received were the compliments of the officers; and when her mother took her occasionally to court, she remained altogether unnoticed among the crowd. She married the grand duke at the age of fifteen, having been chosen at a time when the various disorders and revolutions which had shaken the Russian empire, led the princesses of the great states of Europe to refuse uniting their fate with that of the heir of a throne which was subject to such violent agitations. Her parents caused her to abandon the religion in which she had been educated, and embrace that of the Greek church; and it was expressly stipulated in the contract, that, if the prince should die without leaving children by this marriage, his wife should inherit the crown.

'From the marks of affection' (says M. Rulhière) 'which passed in public between them, from the apparent warmth of their sentiments towards each other, and the custom which they had established of withdrawing from their attendants for some hours every day, it was concluded universally that a second heir would soon be born to the empire. It was little imagined that all this time was employed by the seemingly fond couple in learning the Prussian exercise, mounting guard at the doors, and carrying a firelock on their shoulders; an employment on which the empress, at the mention of this subject some time afterwards, observed, that she could not help thinking herself fitted for something better—"Il me sembloit que j'étais bonne à autre chose."

Although Catharine had the good sense to keep the public from the knowledge of these follies of her husband, the empress Elizabeth beheld with anxiety, that at the end of eight years there was no appearance of offspring. The unfortunate prince, known by the name of the Little Ivan, who had been dethroned at the age of fifteen months, the object of her fears and suspicions, was still alive, though in continual imprisonment; and, as she well knew the facility with which re-

volutions were effected in Russia, she was anxious to see the succession established in her own line.

A young man of the court, count Soltikoff, who possessed a fine figure and no great understanding, was encouraged to become the lover of the grand duchess, to whom the high chancellor of Russia was commissioned to mention the affair. She expressed great indignation, and threatened him with her resentment, citing, at the same time, the article in the contract of marriage, which, in default of children, secured to her the throne. But when he made her understand that he was commissioned by those very persons to whom she threatened to complain, and represented the dangers to which she would expose the empire if she should not take this precaution, and the resolutions more or less fatal which the design of preventing these dangers might lead her to adopt, she answered, 'I understand you, bring him this evening.'

As soon as the pregnancy of the grand duchess was declared, the empress Elizabeth sent away Soltikoff as minister to some foreign court, in spite of the tears of Catharine, who endeavoured to find consolation in other lovers, but was prevented by the vigilance of the empress, who, though of extremely dissolute manners herself, living openly with a crowd of lovers, and secretly with her husband, a Cossack, who had been musician in her chapel (these ill-assorted connections being common with sovereigns in Russia), was anxious to preserve her niece from that depravity into which she had at first been led by her counsels.

Catharine was retained in a state of abstinence and retreat, till the arrival of the English ambassador, Mr. Williams, at Petersburg, whose address and conversation gave a new colour to her fate. Count Poniatowski, who had accompanied him from Warsaw to see the court of Petersburg, and who was afterwards king of Poland, was introduced to the grand duchess secretly as her lover. His character as ambassador from Poland to the court of Russia, with which he was afterwards clothed, gave him greater facility of seeing his mistress; and the connection was not publicly known until Poniatowski, imprudently visiting the grand duchess at Peterhoff-palace in the country, one night, when there was no pretence for such a visit, fell into the hands of the husband. The inviolability of the character of the count as a minister of a foreign court, and the address of the grand duchess, who had reproaches of a similar nature to make to her husband, and who came to a compromise with him by treating his mistress with respect, and paying her a pension out of her privy-purse, reconciled all parties.

M. Rulhière, in his second letter to the countess of Egmont, accounts for some apparent contradictions in this adventure.

Prince

Prince Charles of Saxony was present at Peterhoff, at the moment of the discovery, and declared to count Vieltunski, envoy of the confederation of Poland to France, that he had dined the following day in company with the grand duke and duchess, and that the account given of this affair by M. Rulhière, which was read to him, was perfectly exact. Count Brandts also, who was the friend and confidant of the king of Poland, assured the author that not only was Poniatowski forbidden to approach the court of the grand duke, but that this prince resolved on breaking his marriage, and shutting up the grand duchess in a convent, and actually kept her confined in a small house at Orienbaum.

Count Poniatowski was recalled, and the grand duchess lived for several years in comparative solitude, which she devoted to study, having no companions but the ladies of the court; when the empress Elizabeth died, the fifth of January 1762. While she was on her death-bed, overcome by the entreaties of her attendants, and awed by the admonitions of her confessor, she reconciled the prince with his wife, who appeared at the moment to have regained her usual ascendancy over him. But on the death of the empress he broke loose from all restraint, and, instead of following the counsels of Catharine, who had for some time conceived the project of seizing the reins of empire, began by expressing openly his resentment against her; and though it does not appear what were the precise intentions of the emperor, it was confidently asserted that he had projected to release the young prince Ivan from prison, and declare him heir of the throne; that he had brought him to Petersburg with that design, and had also instigated Soltikoff, whom he recalled for that purpose, to declare himself the father of the grand duke, now Paul I.

Peter III. began his reign by recalling from banishment several personages who had been the victims of caprice or jealousy in former reigns, among whom were baron Munich, and count Lestock, the latter of whom had been the chief promoter of the revolution in favour of the late empress, and was afterwards ruined by ministerial intrigues. The emperor had imbibed, from two men of singular merit to whom the care of his education was first intrusted, principles of heroism, and the love of liberty, which were afterwards mingled with other impressions made by the manners and customs which he saw habitually around him. As his character was composed of contrarieties, so was his conduct. In addition to this act of clemency, he affected to give solid marks of his attachment to principles of free government, by granting to the Russian nobility the rights of the most free nations. The edict caused transports of joy so immoderate, that the nation proposed to

to raise to his honour a statue of solid gold: but the whole of the project was illusion when it came to be reduced to practice.

His enthusiastic admiration of the late king of Prussia was so excessive, that he would frequently rise from table with his glass in his hand, and, throwing himself before the portrait of that prince, exclaim, 'My brother, we will conquer the world together;' and to such an extravagant height did he carry this adoration, that, while Russia was leagued with other powers against his hero, Peter secretly took the title of colonel in his service, and betrayed to him, as far as he knew them, the plans of the alliance. He had attempted to introduce into Russia the laws which the king of Prussia had enacted for the government of his own states, known under the title of the Code of Frederic; but whether it was through the ignorance of the translators, or that appropriate terms could not be found in the Russian language, no senator could understand them.

Though his conduct was tempered by the first impressions which he had received of justice and equality, and he was sometimes capable of acting with magnanimity, it was also tainted with all the follies and caprices of the most vexatious and ridiculous despotism. His palace during his reign, which lasted only six months, was a continued scene of riot and festivity. The most beautiful women of the court were sometimes guests at these festivals, at which they were made to drink English beer, and smoke tobacco. Though heated and worn out with fatigue, he would not suffer any of them to leave his presence; they were therefore compelled to throw themselves on sofas, and sleep amidst the dissonant orgies of the debauch. To these feasts actresses and opera-dancers were equally admitted; and when remonstrances were made by the ladies of the court, Peter answered, that with women all ranks were alike. Two of his favourites having received money for their protection, he beat them with his fist, took the money from them, and then continued to treat them with the same regard as usual. The dissolute pleasures of his court were followed by military exercises so violent, that his soldiers were exhausted with fatigue. Not satisfied with hearing the continual roar of cannon, he persisted in giving orders that a hundred pieces of artillery should be fired at once, till he was assured that the city would be overthrown by the shock. These extravagancies, and others still more ridiculous which he projected,—such as unmarrying the ladies of the court who were discontented with their husbands, and arranging beds in his palace for new weddings,—increased the general discontent which had already been caused by the preparations he had made for an expedition into Holstein, under pretence

pretence of avenging the injuries that his ancestors had received from Denmark, but which was considered by his army and the surrounding states, as the means of augmenting the force of the king of Prussia with a hundred thousand men. Such was the ascendant which this prince had over his fanatical admirer, who openly called him 'the king, my master;' and, when he came to the empire, exchanged his former rank in his service for that of general. Amidst this universal discontent, the eyes of all were turned on the empress, who lived retired and tranquil, affecting only to be employed in the practice of religious duties, of the ceremonials of which she was most strictly observant. While her emissaries were employed in promoting these discontents, and fomenting the dispositions of the public towards a change, her authority was so diminished that she had scarcely influence enough in her own palace to procure the necessary services for her person; and though every one believed that a revolution was near, no one could conjecture by what means it was to be effected. Orloff and the princess D'Aschekoff were the chief actors in this great event. Orloff, one of the finest men in the empire, was the lover of Catharine, who by her influence had saved him from banishment into Siberia. The princess D'Aschekoff was niece of the great chancellor, and sister to the mistress of the emperor. While her sisters were placed at court, she continued with her uncle, with whom she had opportunities of seeing the foreign ministers; but so great was her passion for liberty, that, although she was only fifteen years of age, she would converse with none but the ministers of republics; talked loudly against Russian despotism, and announced her resolution of going to live in Holland, in order to enjoy civil and religious freedom. She was sent by her husband to reside at Moscow, but was recalled by her family, who hoped to acquire that influence by the ascendancy of her talents, which they had failed in obtaining from the indolence and weakness of her sister. Introduced at court, she became early disgusted with the smoking parties of her sister, and attached herself entirely to the empress, with whom she passed the greatest part of her time in solitude, each encouraging the other in a detestation of the despotism under which they lived. Her principles were ill calculated for a Russian court, and she never affected to conceal them; she quitted her station, filled with indignation against the prince, and with equal enthusiasm for Catharine, and lived retired at Petersburg, — employing herself in the study of the higher sciences, — declaring openly that the scaffold would be no obstacle in her eyes to any means of promoting the happiness of her country, — and expressing her abhorrence of the ambition of her family, who were seeking to

raise themselves on the ruin of her friend, by the purposed elevation of her sister to the throne.

These personages were instruments in the hands of Catharine, which she employed to forward her purposes, without suffering them to be known to each other as concerned in the same design. Orloff, having the controul of the chest of the artillery, had the means of making the necessary advances of money to seduce the soldiery. The princess D'Aschekoff gained over the higher orders of the clergy at the first mention of the plan, since they had been entirely ruined by Peter's reforms. Count Panin joined also in the conspiracy, but insisted that the crown should descend immediately to his pupil, the archduke. This plan neither suited the views of Catharine, nor those of the princess D'Aschekoff, with whom the count was desperately in love, and who in vain employed all her powers of persuasion to change his purpose. Believing, from the connection that subsisted between her mother and count Panin, that she was herself his daughter, she repulsed his solicitations. Her friendship for Catharine, however, at length overcame her scruples; and the grand duke was made the sacrifice. As both Panin and the princess had the same views with respect to the government of their country, both equally detesting its despotism, and anxious to restore it to liberty, they formed a kind of free code, in which the power of the crown was greatly limited, and by which they engaged the nobles to enter into their views. This part of the plan was opposed by Orloff, who was afterwards introduced by Catharine to the princess as engaged in the same project. Prompted (we may suppose) by Catharine, he refused to accede to any limitation but such as she herself should propose, or to which she should consent; and the nobles, who were too far engaged to recede, appeared satisfied with the verbal promises made by the empress to secure their liberty.

Every day added considerable numbers to the list of conspirators, who decided on the mode of putting their project into execution; which was to seize on the person of the emperor in his palace, and stab him if he made resistance. Peter was at his country residence twelve leagues from Petersburg; and the period of his return to the city was the time fixed for the execution of the plot. The empress, in order to avoid being suspected, was also at her house in the country, when a soldier, to whom the secret was imprudently intrusted by Passig who had offered himself to the empress as executioner, revealed the conspiracy, and Passig was immediately arrested. The princess D'Aschekoff, who was instantly informed of this circumstance, proposed to count Panin to begin immediately the execution of their project. Panin hesi-

tated, refused, and retired to his house; when the princess, then only eighteen years of age, putting on men's clothes, repaired to the usual place of meeting upon a bridge, where she informed Orloff and his companions of the arrest, and conjured them to begin immediately the revolt. They all joyfully consented, and the princess dispatched one of Orloff's brothers to the empress with a note, in which were written only these words — 'Hasten, madam: there is no time to lose.' Orloff and his friend agreed, if their enterprise should fail, to kill each other with their pistols. The princess would take no such precaution, as punishment, if the plan should fail, became to her a matter of indifference.

The empress, awakened by the brother of Orloff, who communicated his message verbally, dressed herself in haste, and repaired to Petersburg in a carriage which had been kept at a neighbouring farm to secure her flight, if the conspiracy, as originally projected, had failed. Every thing was prepared during the night for her reception: she arrived at seven in the morning; and, the soldiers not having yet risen from their beds, she was received at first by only thirty men, who came out in their shirts to meet her. She was startled at this apparent want of preparation: but when she represented to them the cause of her visit, telling them 'that she was come to throw herself into their arms, the emperor having sent to murder her and her son,' they all swore to defend her with their lives, and she received the oath of the regiment on the crucifix which was held by the chaplain. The crowd increased every moment; the chiefs appeared and took similar oaths, and the empress soon found herself at the head of ten thousand men. The military, with few exceptions, had now all declared in her favour; and the nobles, who soon received intelligence of what was passing, hastened to the palace, where they found a great number of priests celebrating religious service, and receiving the oaths of fidelity, while the empress was employed in using every art of seduction. The clergy were particularly active on this occasion.

'Towards noon,' (says M. Rulhière) 'the chiefs of the Russian clergy, aged men of venerable appearance, [it is well known of what real importance the slightest things, fitted to strike the imagination, become in such critical moments] all having fine long hair, and large white beards, clothed in their splendid and costly robes, bearing the ornaments of consecration; the crown, the imperial globe, and the ancient books, marched, with a solemn and majestic pace, through the ranks of the army, who were awed from tumultuous noise into profound silence. Thence they passed on to the palace to consecrate the empress; and this spectacle excited in every heart



heart a certain emotion, which seemed to legalise violence and usurpation.

'As soon as the empress was consecrated, she put on the old uniform of the guards, which she borrowed of a young officer, of her own size. The solemn ceremonies of religion then gave way to those of a warlike toilette, in which the charms of gallantry were blended with the most important interests; and this young and beautiful woman borrowed, with the most captivating grace, from the nobles who surrounded her, — of one, a hat; of another, a sword; but, above all, the riband of the first order of the empire, which her husband had entirely laid aside for that of Prussia. In this new dress she mounted on horseback at the gate of the palace, and having by her side the princess D'Aschekoff, who was also in the dress of the guards, she paraded around the square, showed herself to the troops, as if she was going to put herself as general at their head, and by her smiles and gestures inspired that confidence which she herself seemed to feel.

'The regiments began to file off to leave the city, and march against the emperor. The empress returned to her palace, and dined at a window which opened on the square, where she was seen holding up her glass as if pledging the troops, who answered by loud and long acclamations: after which she again mounted her horse, and departed at the head of her army.'

Meanwhile the emperor was at the castle of Orienbaum, in the most perfect tranquillity, and, when informed of the revolt, treated the report with contempt. He spent the day, which was the festival of St. Peter, at Peterhoff, the palace from which the empress had made her escape, and arrived there only to hear the confirmation of the dreadful tidings. The great chancellor Worousoff was dispatched towards the empress to remonstrate with her upon her conduct, but joined at once her party. In the mean while the emperor sent back to Orienbaum for his Holstein guards, while he dictated manifestoes against the empress and her adherents. The danger becoming more pressing from the march of the army, count Munich advised the emperor to withdraw to Cronstadt, where he had a numerous fleet and garrison at his command. On the arrival of his guards at Peterhoff, he was anxious to try their courage before his departure: but receiving news of the near approach of the empress with twenty thousand men, he went with his attendants on board two yachts that were prepared for him, and was rowed to Cronstadt. That city, which a few hours before was ready to receive him with acclamations, was now in the hands of the insurgents; for vice-admiral Talizine,

In the interval, had taken possession of it in the empress's name, and arrested the commander.

"The two imperial galleys were now in sight; and Talizine, who had made himself master of the city by an effort of great audacity, felt that the presence of the emperor would be attended with infinite danger, and how necessary it was to interest and engage all parties in the revolt. Immediately on his orders, the alarm-bell rung throughout the city; the whole garrison, ready to fire, lined the ramparts, and two hundred matches were lighted for the cannon. About ten o'clock the emperor's yacht arrived, and, when about to cast anchor, was saluted by the usual cry of the sentinel: "Who comes there?"—"The emperor!"—"There is no longer any emperor."—At those terrible words the prince arose, and came forward; and opening his cloak to show his order, said, "It is I: look at me," and was preparing to go on. The whole of the guard, with the sentinels, presented their bayonets; and the commander threatened to fire, if he did not immediately move off; the emperor fell back into the arms of his attendants; and Talizine called out to the yachts to sheer off, or he would instantly fire on them. The whole multitude echoed "Off with the galley! off with the galley!" with so much ferocity, that the captain, fearful of being sunk with the volley he expected every moment, took a speaking trumpet, and cried out, "We are going: give us time to unmoor;" and in order to escape with more diligence, he cut the cables. At the sound of the speaking trumpet, silence took place among the people; and, at the departure of the galleys, a cry arose, of "Long live the empress Catharine!" While they were flying with all the force of the oars, the emperor wept, and said, "The conspiracy is general: I have seen the plot from the first days of my reign."

He remained all night on the water, deliberating what course to take, and at length determined to return to Orienbaum.

Having learned that the empress's army, after taking possession of Peterhoff, were approaching to Orienbaum, he proposed escaping in disguise to Poland; but, persuaded by his mistress, the sister of the princess D'Aschekoff, he determined at length to write to Catharine, and request her to let him depart in safety to Holstein. The letter containing this proposition he dispatched by his chamberlain to the empress. In return, she sent him the copy of a formal renunciation of his government to sign, with which he complied, and was immediately transferred with his mistress to Peterhoff, where he was compelled to divest himself of his riband and other marks of sovereignty, and was treated with great indignity.

The empress slept at Peterhoff, and received next day with

complacency the submission of the courtiers and adherents of her husband. He was thence transported to Robsbak, within six leagues of Petersburg, while she returned to that city, where she was received with triumph and acclamations. Six days had elapsed, when the people, and especially the soldiers, began to reflect on the circumstances into which they had been betrayed, and discovered unequivocal marks of discontent and disaffection. Conspiracies began to be formed, and it was suggested that tranquillity would not be established as long as the life of the emperor gave a pretence for disorder or insurrection. It was therefore determined to put to death this unfortunate prince.

‘One of the counts, Orloff, who had been the bearer of the news of the revolt to the empress, and a person of the name of Toplof, went together to the place where the emperor was confined. They informed him on entering, that they were come to dine with him; and, agreeably to the Russian custom, they brought in glasses of brandy before dinner. That which the emperor drank was a glass of poison. Whether they were in haste to carry back their news, or whether horror of the deed made them anxious to finish their work, they insisted on pouring him out another glass. His bowels were already affected; and, struck by the atrocity of their looks, he refused: they endeavoured to force him to take it, which he as forcibly resisted. In this horrible conflict, in order to stifle his cries, which began to be heard at a distance, they threw themselves on him, seized him by the throat, and flung him down; but, as he defended himself with all the strength of despair, and they avoided giving him any wound, they called to their assistance two officers who were entrusted with the guard of his person, and who were then waiting without the gate of his prison. The one was the youngest of the princes of Baratinsky, the other was named Pittenikini, only nineteen years of age. They had shown so much zeal in the conspiracy, that, notwithstanding their extreme youth, they had been appointed to this post of confidence. They rushed in upon receiving the summons; and three of these murderers having tied a napkin around the neck of the emperor with a running knot, while Orloff pressed his breast with his knees, they strangled him, and he remained lifeless in their hands.”

It is not accurately known what share the empress had in this event: but it is certain that the day on which it happened, this princess was at dinner with much conviviality, when Orloff appeared, dishevelled, covered with dust and sweat, his clothes torn, his looks disturbed, and full of horror. As he entered, his piercing and troubled eyes met those of the empress. She arose in silence, and passed into a room, to which he followed

ed her; and some moments after she called count Panin, who was already named her minister, informed him that the emperor was dead, and consulted him upon the mode of announcing his death to the public. Panin advised her to let a night pass, and to spread the news the next day, as if it had been received during the night. Having taken this advice, the empress returned to the apartment she had left, and continued her dinner with gaiety. The next day, when the news was spread that Peter had died of an hæmorrhoidal colic, she appeared bathed in tears, and published her affliction by an edict.

The body, notwithstanding the marks of violence which it displayed, was publicly exposed for three days. The empress sent back all the relatives of the emperor to Holstein with tokens of liberality; and to prince George, the uncle of the late emperor, she gave the administration of the duchy. Poniatowski, on the news of the revolution, was hastening to Petersburg, but was stopt by motives of prudence on the frontiers, and received shortly after, as the reward of his constancy and his passion, the crown of Poland.

The empress, desirous of removing all appearance of foreign influence in the government, carefully avoided promoting any of her own family, or admitting them into her presence. She was acknowledged by all the sovereigns of Europe, but not by the emperor of China, who refused all kind of communication with the usurper of her husband's crown.

The counts Orloff and Panin divided the administration of the empire between them. By the assassination of the unfortunate captive prince Ivan, the empress delivered herself from all further apprehensions of rivals or of conspiracy. As she had waded through crimes to the possession of despotic power, it cost her but little to remove every other obstacle to the indulgence of her passions. The princess D'Aschekoff, who had been the most instrumental in raising her to the throne,—who had dared the scaffold in her defence, and, according to M. Rulhière, had made the sacrifice even of her conscience and her virtue,—was disgraced by the empress in the first days of her usurpation, while her services were yet necessary to consolidate the revolution. Disappointed in seeing her country change masters without a correspondent change in the principles of government, the means of effecting which change had been the favourite subject of her secret discourses with Catharine during their retirement from the court in the lifetime of Elizabeth, she remonstrated freely with the empress on the fallacy of her promises; and the discovery of the intimate nature of her attachment to Orloff led her to censure

her disregard of decency. Catharine was now raised above remonstrance or reproof; the suggestions of justice, or the admonitions of prudence, were harsh to her ear; even the presence of the princess became offensive and humiliating; and the empress freed herself from reproach and importunity, at the expense of friendship and gratitude.

*Les Bataves, par Bitaubé, Membre de l'Institut National de France, et de l'Académie Royale des Sciences et Belles-Lettres de Prusse. 8vo. Paris. 1797.*

*The Batavians, by M. Bitaubé, Member of the National Institute of France, and of the Royal Academy of Prussia. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Imported by De Boffe. 1797.*

THE subject chosen by M. Bitaubé acquires a new interest from the present circumstances. It is the foundation of the Dutch republic, the former triumph of liberty in a neighbouring nation, who, after the lapse of two centuries, has again arisen to shake off the chains of her real or pretended tyrants. It is true that the first revolution of Holland bears little analogy to those which we at present witness. The association of the seven United Provinces against Spanish despotism was chiefly the work of one great man, William of Nassau. In the American and French revolutions, on the contrary, the events are greater than the actors; and, during the progress of the latter, ambitious men are found at every step, but no where the genius of a Nassau, or a Cromwell.

The subject of the present poem is such as to interest every class of readers. It is the picture of an oppressed nation at war with its tyrants, under the auspices of a chief worthy of command. The action has all the greatness which is necessary for works of this kind. In the Pharsalia we see the melancholy spectacle of guilt triumphing over virtue; here on the contrary victory crowns the cause of the just, and the oppressors meet with their due punishment.

To the merit of the subject, the author has added all the resources of an art which he has long studied under the most sublime of masters. His plan is well formed; he throws himself at once into the midst of his subject; his principal personage is the predominant figure throughout the piece, and the subordinate actors have each their distinctive characters. The plan is unfolded with clearness; the ornaments are happily placed; the episodes vary the story, and the unity is every where preserved. The author has seized all the remarkable facts which history afforded him: but he has disposed of them;  
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in the course of his narration, with the power of a poetical imagination. He could not employ an animated mythology like that of the Greeks; but he has invented allegorical personages, such as Fanaticism and Tyranny, which, from the dungeons of the Escorial, and the dome of the Vatican, arm themselves against Liberty, the tutelary deity of the Batavians. Fictions still more Homeric than these animate his work; the genius of the seas, under the name of Ocanor, takes the defence of the United Provinces; the Ysil, and the Meuse, swelling above their banks, defend the walls of Leyden, as Xanthus and Simois fought for the walls of Troy. This kind of fiction is perfectly adapted to the genius of a nation which reigns over the waters, and which owes to navigation all its power and glory.

The interest of the story opens with the first book. William goes to seek for assistance in France from admiral Coligni, and the young Henry of Navarre. He relates to him the excesses committed by the duke of Alba, the imprisonment of Horn, and of the bravest defenders of his country. He describes the fallen despotism of Philip the Second, and the ferocity of his ministers, which had at length worn out the patience of the Batavians.

The union of the destinies of France and Holland is well imagined. Coligni was defending, in some respects, the same cause with Nassau. It is even certain, that, at this epoch, many of the Calvinists armed against the faction of the Guises, thought of founding a French republic; nor is it to be wondered at, since the constitutions of Calvinism are strictly republican. Calvinism has often shaken monarchies to their foundations wherever it could find shelter, as Grotius has observed; while Lutheranism, the spirit of which is less active, accommodated itself with the kings of the north. It may be observed, indeed, that the true motive which has excited the catholic monarchs, and Lewis the Fourteenth in particular, against the principles of Calvin, was rather political than religious. Princes would care very little in general for the interest of an established religion, if they did not perceive that the same principle which menaces the church, is equally hostile to the throne.

One of the principal parts of this work is the execution of Egmont and Horn. The intrepidity of the two heroes,—the alternately tender and heroic sentiments with which they were animated,—the affliction of their two wives, which is beautifully painted,—the tears of their children,—the cruel apathy of the duke of Alva,—and the stupefied grief of the people, are traced with no common pencil. The composition of the sixth book is highly original and pathetic.

The author is not less an imitator of Tacitus than of Homer.

Tacitus

Tacitus is indeed the historian of poets, as he is of politicians. We recollect the sublime manner in which he paints Agrippina carrying in her bosom the ashes of Germanicus, and landing in the port of Brundisium amidst the silent sorrows of a whole people. In the same manner the widow of Horn clothes herself in mourning, and places in an urn the ashes of her husband, which she carries from city to city, from province to province, into camps, on board of the fleets, at the head of armies, every where crying for vengeance. This character is original, and is supported to the very last.

The revolution which the reformers made in the human mind, was, as it often happens, the source of evil as well as good. M. Bitaubé has not neglected the means of enriching his subject. He traces the progress of thought, of industry, of the sciences, and the arts, by the aid of those prophetic visions which embellish almost all epopœias, ancient and modern. The invention of bombs furnishes him with one of his boldest fictions, and most energetic descriptions. The style is rapid, elevated, picturesque, and harmonious. The enthusiasm of liberty breathes in every page, while the dread of tyranny, and horror of licentiousness and anarchy, are marked with the same glow of colouring. The political ideas of the author are as just as his imagination is brilliant. He has thrown them into the speeches of his personages: and, in imitation of the best models, he has given animation to Reason, and made her assume a dramatic form.

In such a work it is difficult to make selections: the whole must be judged together. We shall, however, translate a passage, which, if not the best, is one of the most analogous to present circumstances. Nassau and Coligni behold, in a kind of prophetic vision, the revolutions which are hereafter to change the face of Europe. — They discover

— ‘ these celestial genii who created arts and philosophy to soothe the evils of humanity, and elevate the soul. During the deep gloom of barbarism, when the earth seemed replunged in chaos, when pillage and murder spread themselves over the cities and the plains, — when man — if such a degraded slave deserved the name of man — was chained to the soil, bathed in vain for him with the sweat of his brow, — these genii hovered over the tombs of Homer, of Plato, of Zeuxis, and of Praxiteles, those solemn recesses, from which astonished mortals heard melodious sounds arise! Those benign genii now revisit the haunts of men: — a vivifying spirit moves over the dark empire of chaos: — Tyranny trembles on her throne, and Superstition shrinks back affrighted. Again Italy re-echoes the enchanting sounds of philosophy, preceded by the arts: they prepare the dawn of those radiant days which

which shall spread their light over France, and of those yet more distant, when that nation, taught by their lessons, shall rear altars to Liberty.'

To this soothing representation a melancholy picture succeeds. The author continues —

' O fury of contending factions ! sanguinary hatred ! destructive ambition ! degrading cupidity ! into what a dreadful abyss will ye one day plunge a generous nation, at the very moment when, having become free, she has fixed the attention of the universe, by the achievements of her courage, and by her unexampled triumphs ! — Where do those russians hasten, armed with clubs and daggers ? the prison gates open, and thousands of men, of women — stay, monsters, stay ! — it is too late ! — Justice is replaced by her hideous phantom : the laws are dumb, and in their presence the measure of crimes is filled, and torrents of blood are shed. And ye innocent victims ! crowded together in palaces and temples, now transformed into dark and infectious dungeons, your plaintive sighs already reach my ear : my eyes witness that punishment in which youth and manhood, infancy and age, are alike involved ! What, then, are your crimes, unhappy victims ? alas, perhaps your virtues, your too-enlightened zeal, your talents, or your wealth, which your murderers are eager to seize ! I see you dragged to the scaffolds — the blood of the father mingles with that of his son, — and the mother in vain presses her daughter to her bosom, and asks to die before her child. Oh ! height of error, and of barbarism ! the people flock to those atrocious spectacles ; they applaud those sacrifices, and believe that to them they owe their safety and their felicity. Where then is the senate ? Where are the courageous citizens ? They triumph on the frontiers, or are shackled with chains. The rest tremble before a base tyrant, and before his bloody tribunal, — that tribunal where the witnesses, the judges, and the tyrant by whom they are prompted, together with his numerous satellites, form one horde of executioners. Through the extent of that vast empire these horrors are every day multiplied ; nor shall they cease, till the earth has twice performed her circle round the sun.'

The siege of Leyden is one of the great events of this poem. The ferocity of the besiegers, and the intrepidity of the besieged, are painted with all the glow of a vivid imagination. M. Bitaubé, in making use of a poetic prose, has imitated the modest circumspection of the author of *Telemachus*, who did not give the title of poem to his work. From Aristotle down to our own time, critics question whether poems can exist in prose, or if verse be absolutely necessary to  
this



this kind of composition. Both systems are defended by respectable authorities; and it is not our business, to decide between them. But we are not afraid of being contradicted by good judges, in asserting that the author of *Joseph* appears to us to be the first of the disciples of Fenelon. Both formed themselves in the school of Homer; and we cannot too often repeat to the present generation, that the best works of every kind are those which approach the nearest to the principles and taste of the great models of antiquity.

*Memoires pour servir à l'Histoire du Jacobinisme. Par M. l'Abbé Barruel. 2 Tom. 8vo. De Boffe. 1797.*

*Memoirs, illustrating the History of Jacobinism. A Translation from the French of the Abbé Barruel. Part I.—Vol. I. the Antichristian Conspiracy. 8vo. Bookcr.*

IT is a matter of great curiosity and of greater importance, to inquire by what means the minds of the people of France were prepared to effect a revolution which overturned the political orders that had subsisted for many centuries, and not only to submit quietly to so great changes, but even themselves to co-operate in destroying the throne and the altar. No thinking man will suppose that this was the work of a moment. No sudden impulse could have organised the revolutionary system; no concurrence of events, however apparently fortunate, could have at once rendered all ancient prejudices disgusting. It is obvious that some preparatory steps must have been taken to fit the people for the great work to be put into their hands, and of which they were to be the efficient agents; and it is highly desirable to know what these were, and by whom they were taken.

The abbé Barruel, in the work before us, attempts to prove that every thing which has happened in the course of the French revolution, even the greatest atrocities, were long foreseen and preconcerted. He denies the purity of the first promoters of the revolution, and maintains that all the events of the revolution emanated, by a natural process, from their principles, and will take place wherever their principles are propagated. He does not mean to detail what Marat or Robespierre have done, but to bring to light the schools, the systems, and the conspiracies, which formed a Philip D'Orléans, a Syeyes, a Condorcet, a Petion, and which are at this present time forming in all nations men who are likely to rival Marat and Robespierre in their cruelties. From these premises, our readers may perhaps conclude that the abbé is an advocate of old establishments; the following passage, however, breathes a spirit

a spirit of candour and humanity which entitles him to respect.

‘ Either the Jacobin sect must be extirpated, or society will be overthrown; but let it be remembered, that to crush a sect is not to imitate the fury of its apostles, intoxicated with its sanguinary rage and enthusiastic homicide, to immolate its adepts, and to direct their own thunder against them. To crush a sect is to attack it in its schools, to dissipate its illusions, expose the absurdity of its principles, the atrocity of its means, and the wickedness of its teachers. Destroy the Jacobin, but spare the man.’

The whole of this work is a series of quotations from various authorities, brought to prove that Jacobinism is the coalition of a triple sect, of a triple conspiracy, which, long before the revolution took place, had for its objects the overthrow of the altar, the throne, and civil society. More particularly; 1. That, many years before the French revolution, men who called themselves philosophers, conspired against the God of the Gospel (*Dieu de l'évangile*), against all Christianity, without exception or distinction of Protestant or Catholic, English church or Presbyterian. The object of this conspiracy was to destroy the altars of Jesus Christ. It was the conspiracy of the sophists of unbelief and impiety.

2. Out of this school of the sophists of impiety, sprang the sophists of rebellion, conspiring against all the thrones of kings, and coalescing with the ancient sect, whose designs formed the secret of the occult lodges (*arrière loges*) of free masonry, a sect which long played upon the credulity of its principal adepts, reserving for the select few the secret of profound hatred of the religion of Christ and of monarchy.

3. From the sophists of impiety and rebellion, sprung the sophists of impiety and anarchy; and these conspired together, not only against Christianity, but against all religion whatever, even natural religion; not only against kings, but against all government, all civil society, and every species of property. This third sect he calls the *illuminés*; and out of the whole he makes Jacobinism; the coalition of the adepts of impiety, rebellion, and anarchy, formed the Jacobin club. These three conspiracies, however, he treats separately, beginning with —

The antichristian conspiracy, which occupies the first volume, and appears to be that on which, in his opinion, the others are founded, but which, in our opinion, only rendered them more easy; for whoever meditates rebellion and proscription, ought first to remove Christianity. But we reserve our remarks until we have given some account of the author's

author's tracing a plot against Christianity, to a higher source than the æra of the revolution.

He commences with treating of the principal actors of the conspiracy. These, according to him, were Voltaire, D'Alembert, Frederic II. king of Prussia, and Diderot. Voltaire was the chief, D'Alembert the most subtle agent, Frederic the protector and often the adviser, and Diderot the forlorn hope. Of these, after giving an account of their lives and principles, he states that Voltaire was impious and tormented by doubts and ignorance; D'Alembert impious, but calm in his impiety; Frederic, impious and triumphant over his ignorance, or not thinking he had any, left God in heaven, provided there were no souls on earth; and Diderot was, by turns, atheist, materialist, deist, or sceptic, but ever impious and frantic. In naming these persons as the chiefs of the antichristian conspiracy, he means to show that each had written against Christianity, and that they had formed and communicated the wish of destroying the religion of Christ; that they acted in concert, sparing no means to promote that destruction; that they were the instigators and conductors of those secondary agents whom they had misled, and followed up their plans and projects with that ardour and constancy which mark the most finished conspiracy. He draws his proofs, where indeed they are only to be found, if found at all, from their intimate correspondence, a long time secret, or from their more public writings. In the course of this proof, however, our author is somewhat whimsical, from a desire to attain the precision of a public accuser, or an attorney-general, who attempts to form a conspiracy out of a mass of papers of all kinds. Beaumarchais' edition of Voltaire's works, he terms the *archives* of the conspiracy, and CRUSH THE WRETCH (meaning Jesus Christ) the *watch-word* of the conspirators. Of this expression Voltaire and Frederic made use: D'Alembert was not unacquainted with it: all the conspirators agreed in the acceptance of it; and our author asserts that it included the *crushing* not only of the church of Rome, but of all forms of religion; which indeed cannot well be doubted, as that must be the object of all infidels, whether they have a watch-word or not. This M. Barruel calls the *extent of the conspiracy*, to overturn every altar where Christ was worshipped. From this he proceeds to their secret names; in their correspondence, Frederic is called *Duluc*; D'Alembert, *Protagoras* or *Bertrand*; Voltaire, *Raton* or the *Cat*; and Diderot, *Plato* or *Tomplat*. As a specimen of their secret language, he gives 'the vine of truth is well cultivated,' meaning, that they are making great progress against religion. The general term for the conspirators was *cacouat*; he was a *cacouac*.

cacouac, who could be depended upon. After some quotations to prove the union of the conspirators, their ardour and constancy in the plot, and Voltaire's open avowal of it, he states the year 1728, as the epoch of the conspiracy. At that time Voltaire returned from England, where he had laid his plot, though for many years he had no coadjutors. In 1750 he went to Berlin, leaving D'Alembert and Diderot in Paris, to whom the coalition against Christ may be first traced. It existed when the plan of the Encyclopedia was formed, which our author styles the grand arsenal of impiety. At Voltaire's return from Prussia in 1752, he found the conspiracy complete. Our author takes this opportunity to state the relation between these conspirators and the Jacobins who lately overthrew the altar in France, and can find no difference between them, but that the one *wished* to crush and the other *did* crush.

The *first means* of the conspirators were the Encyclopedia, of which we have here the professed as well as the secret object. Professedly, it was to have contained a library of arts and sciences; but really it became a vast emporium of all the sophisms, errors, or calumnies, that had ever been propagated against religion; and, the better to introduce it into notice, some men of different character were engaged, and it was given out that all points of religion were to be handled by divines well known for learning and orthodoxy. All this, our author observes, might be true, and yet Diderot and D'Alembert have sufficient scope for insinuating error and infidelity, which accordingly they did in articles of history, natural philosophy, chemistry, and geography. Of this we have some curious proofs; but the true purpose of the Encyclopedia is not a new discovery. It has long been acknowledged, and it had undoubtedly a great influence in destroying the Roman catholic religion, without substituting another.

The second medium for promoting the conspiracy is said to have been the extinction of the Jesuits; but this link in the conspiracy does not appear to us sufficiently connected. Perhaps, however, as the third step toward it was the extinction of *all* religious orders, this might have been convenient as a preparatory measure. Ably, however, as our author has traced the extinction of these orders to the machinations of the Encyclopedists, he will fail in exciting the same interest that will be felt for the destruction of Christianity. Although the destruction of the religious orders might be a part of this conspiracy, yet we cannot connect the existence of Jesuits, monks, and nuns, with that of the religion of Jesus; and this part of his work will, we apprehend, produce the greatest effect only upon those who have been the greatest sufferers.

If,

If, according to M. Barruel, Europe has no right to complain of a set of men, by whose care she emerged from the savage state of the ancient Gauls, we answer, that they have cancelled all obligations of that kind. If they opened the doors of knowledge, they rudely shut them again in our faces; and their services in religion were merely to cloud and confound the purity of the gospel with the most monstrous inventions of men, with superstition and persecution. We mean not by these reflections to apologise for the conduct of the Encyclopedists. They wanted that purity of motive, without which no action can be termed good; but we are convinced that the destruction of religious orders, the *propagators of superstition and slavery*, will never injure real religion, or diminish the happiness of a people. If this seems harsh to a vindicator of the Roman catholic religion, — to an abbé, — he must recollect that he is now in the enemy's country, and that here such orders were destroyed two centuries ago, not from a conspiracy to abolish, but to purify the Christian religion; at least such was the consequence if not the intention.

The *fourth means* to continue the conspiracy are stated to have been Voltaire's colony, a colony of missionaries, a sort of corresponding society of infidels, which, however, did not succeed. The *fifth means* were academic honours, which the conspirators procured for certain persons, whom our author characterises in this manner —

‘ First Marmontel, agreeing in opinion with Voltaire, D’Alembert, and Diderot; then La Harpe, one of Voltaire’s favourite adepts; Champfort, the colleague of Marmontel and La Harpe; Lemierre, called by Voltaire a staunch enemy to the *wretch*, or Christ; abbé Millot, whom D’Alembert loved for his having forgotten his priesthood, and the public approved, for having given the history of France an antipapal turn; Briennes, an enemy to the church, though living in its bosom; Suar, Gaillar, and, lastly, Condorcet, whose reception was to en throne the fiend of atheism within the walls of the academy.’

The French academy was thus soon converted into a club of infidels, with a solitary exception —

‘ There was however among the forty a layman much to be respected for his piety. This was Mr. Beauzet. I one day asked him, how it had been possible, that a man of his morality could ever have been associated with such notorious unbelievers? “The very same question (he answered) have I put to D’Alembert. At one of the sittings, seeing that I was nearly the only person who believed in God, I asked him,

him, how he possibly could ever have thought of me for a member, when he knew that my sentiments and opinions differed so widely from those of his brethren? D'Alembert without hesitation (added Mr. Beauzet) answered, I am sensible of your amazement, but we were in want of a skilful grammarian, and, among our party, not one had acquired reputation in that line. We knew that you believed in God, but, as you were a good sort of man, we cast our eyes on you, for want of a philosopher to supply your place."

The sixth means of carrying on this conspiracy, are stated to have been an inundation of antichristian writings; those of Voltaire, D'Alembert, Freret, Boulanger, Helvetius, Meslier, Dumarlais, and Maillet, are particularly mentioned as having been circulated with the greatest industry; and short proofs are given from each, of their having the same design and tendency.

The author next proceeds to the pretended *toleration* of the conspirators, in which he finds plunder, violence, and death, clearly premeditated, and that their plans were one and the same with those of the Jacobins their successors; the Petions, Condorcets, and Robespierres, having conducted every scheme under the same mask of toleration, reason, and humanity. He illustrates this position by a quotation from a letter written by Voltaire, in 1770, in which he says to the king of Prussia, 'I wish to God that Ganganelli had some good domain in your neighbourhood, and that you were not so far from Loretto. It is charming to laugh at these harlequin makers of bulls; I love to render them ridiculous, but I should like better to plunder them.' This and similar extracts prove, in the opinion of our author, that the chief of the conspirators anticipated the plundering decrees of the Jacobins, and even the revolutionary incursion which their armies have made into Loretto. So close is the coincidence between what Voltaire and the other conspirators projected, and the revolutionists executed, that, where he fails in proving that the former were *projectors*, he almost proves them to have been true *prophets*. But, in some instances, he seems to honour the sect of Voltaire with more cunning and foresight than belong to them. Frederic of Prussia is perhaps nearer the mark, when he says, in a letter to Voltaire in 1775, 'To Bayle, your forerunner, and also to yourself, is due the honour of that revolution working in the minds of men. But to speak with truth, it is not yet complete; bigots have their party, and it will never be perfected but by a superior force: from government must the sentence issue, that shall *crush the wretch*. Ministers may forward it; but the will of the sovereign must accede. With-

out doubt this will be performed in time, but neither of us can be spectators of that long-wished-for moment.' Our author, from this, endeavours to prove that the king of Prussia foresaw a time when the arm of the law might be raised, as in the days of Julian, to extirpate the Christians; but surely, eager as he is to connect Frederic with Voltaire in the *antichristian* conspiracy, he cannot suppose that this prince foresaw that the revolution of the *state* was to precede that of the church. Frederic would have withdrawn from a conspiracy that threatened the existence of the throne and the life of the monarch,—that brought about a revolution which ended in the humiliation of his successor, and rendered useless and helpless that treasure and those troops which he had amassed and disciplined with so much care. Here, we apprehend, is a failure in proof of that connection which our author has hitherto supported with much ingenuity. He is more successful, however, in detailing the respective services performed by the principal conspirators in their various departments, and appreciates their characters with acuteness and discrimination, but rather with severity. Hitherto all is *conspiracy*. Before the mask was thrown off, it was requisite that the number of the adepts should be augmented, and the arms of the multitude secured to them; and our author now proceeds to show their successes in the divers orders of society, during the lives of the chiefs.

Voltaire's grand object was to make sure of the better sort,—all who were illustrious by power, rank, or riches,—and, after them, all who were distinguished for education. M. Barruel declares that the antichristian conspiracy made its first progress among princes, kings, emperors, ministers, and courts; in a word, among those styled the *great*. This declaration will probably excite reflections in the minds of our readers, not quite in unison with those of our author. All will agree with him, however, that—

'If a writer dare not utter truths like these, he ought to throw away his pen. He who has not the courage to tell kings, that they were the first to league in the conspiracy against Christ and his religion, and that it is the same God who has permitted the conspirators, first to threaten, then undermine their thrones and scoff at their authority, is only leaving the powers of the earth to their fatal blindness.'

In enumerating, therefore, the names of the royal adepts, we find Joseph II. Catharine II. of Russia, but in an inferior degree, the present king of Denmark, the late king of Sweden, and the king of Poland. The correspondence or acquaintance of these personages with the sect of Voltaire is proved

more or less strongly from written authority; but the bare recital of their names will convince our readers that M. Barruel is too much enamoured of his *regular* conspiracy, to see the inconsistency of ranking the king of Poland among the sufferers by an acquiescence in this scheme. He and his people, indeed, fell victims to an antichristian conspiracy, but not of the kind which our author endeavours to substantiate. In his aversion, likewise, to the rulers of France, he asserts some things without proof. It no where appears that Louis XVII. died by poison, or that any thing but the fate of war drove the stadtholder into this country.

Among the *adept* princes and princesses, he reckons Frederic, landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, the duke of Brunswick, Louis Eugene, duke of Wirtemberg, Louis, prince of Wirtemberg, Charles Theodore, elector Palatine, the princess of Anhalt-Zerbst, Wilhelmina, margravine of Bareith, and Frederic William, prince royal of Prussia. M. Barruel's observations on this class of adepts are given with a boldness and spirit which, however meritorious in a historian, will not be very acceptable to these illustrious personages. It is, however, no new discovery, that the majority of the sovereigns and princes of Europe are not so remarkable for orthodoxy in religion as in monarchy, although our author wishes to prove that this has been the case only since the rise of the Voltairian conspiracy. Alas! when was it otherwise? We are pleased to see the frankness with which he treats the character of Louis XV. He remarks that *philosophism* (another addition to the many *isms* of the French and English languages) had not gained the throne of Bourbon, as it had gained many of the northern thrones; but, he adds, it would be in vain for history to dissemble, that Louis XV. without being of the conspiracy, powerfully aided the antichristian conspirators. He never had the misfortune of losing his faith: he even loved religion; but, during the last thirty-five years of his life, he so little practised it, and the dissoluteness of his morals and public triumphs of his courtezans answered so little to the title of his *most christian* majesty, that he might nearly as well have been a disciple of Mahomet. Our readers will perceive some inconsistency in this character of Louis: but they will forget it in the truth and justice of the following reflections; that sovereigns are not sufficiently aware of the evils which they draw on themselves by swerving from morality —

‘ Some have supported religion only as a curb on their subjects: but woe be to him who views it only in that light. In vain shall they preserve its tenets in their hearts; it is their example that must uphold it. Next to the example of the



clergy, that of kings is the most necessary to restrain the people. *When religion is used only as a policy, the vilest of the populace will soon perceive it; they will look upon it as a weapon used against them; and sooner or later they will break it, and your power vanishes.* If without morals you pretend to religion, the people will also think themselves religious in their profligacy; and how often has it been repeated, that laws without morals are but a mere phantom? But the day will come when the people, thinking themselves more consequential, will throw aside both morals and tenets: and then where shall be your curb?"

M. Barruel now gives us a list of the principal ministers of state, noblemen, and magistrates, who became adepts under the grand conspirators. Among these, we are surprised to find the name of Malesherbes treated with great severity. His crime, in the eye of our author, was, that he alleviated the rigour of prisons, and remedied the abuse of lettres-de-cachet, and, *consequently*, aided and assisted in admitting that inundation of impiety, which brought his master to the scaffold, and afterward himself. This is not just reasoning. Our author inveighs against the freedom of the press, as the cause of all the mischiefs of France. Of that freedom, however, the French enjoyed very little till the revolution. It was the want of the freedom of the press, which made irreligious or seditious writings be circulated with more zeal, and read with greater avidity. Miserable must that government and religion be, which cannot be supported but by a licenser of the press and a Bastille. We are proud to say, such is not the religion and government of this country. But, in censuring the conduct of Malesherbes, we evidently perceive that our author splits on a rock which few of the defenders of the ancient régime have escaped; we mean, a total ignorance of the rights of free inquiry and discussion. In this country, he frequently observes, that the writings of Hobbes, Tindal, and Bolingbroke, are not read:—and why are they not read? Because they have been refused by means of a free press, and are now confined to the closets of those only whom no arguments will convince.

The reader will not be surprised to find the name of Necker among the ministerial adepts. He has lately been the particular object of rancour, among almost all writers on the French revolution. M. Barruel, ranking him as a conspirator, assigns him the honourable office of deranging the finances, on purpose to assist the common cause. But Necker has his revenge a few pages farther, where our author classes the marechal de Broglie as 'one of the distinguished personages who

who would have done honour to the brightest ages of Christianity.' After a list of the impious ministers, we have a grave inquiry, why so religious a king as Louis XVI. should have been surrounded by such a set of counsellors? Surely M. Barruel must be ignorant of ministers of state, to ask this question. Ministers of state, in more devout countries than France, would not think it a compliment, if their accession to power were to be attributed to their religion.

Among the adepts in literature, he reckons Rousseau, Buffon, Freret, Boulanger, marquis d'Argens, la Mettrie, Marmontel, la Harpe, Condorcet, Helvetius, and Toussaint, whose writings are briefly but severely criticised, though for the most part justly. From them, says M. Barruel, arose the Mirabeaux and Brissots, the Caras and Garats, the Merciers and Chéniers; hence, in a word, all that class of French *litterateurs*, who appear to have been universally carried away by the torrent of the revolution. It is not in that class that a Robespierre or a Jourdan is found; but it can afford a Pétion or a Marat. It can afford principles, sophisms, and a morality, which terminate in Robespierres and in Jourdans; and if these latter murder a Bailly, terrify a Marmontel, and imprison a la Harpe, they only terrify, murder, and imprison their progenitors.

In the midst of all this conspiracy, it is naturally to be asked, how were the clergy employed? Our author bestows a chapter on that body, in which he speaks with approbation of their labours in refuting the *philosophism* of the conspirators: but he speaks with candour and caution; and we strongly suspect that their greatest efforts were rather those of the law than the gospel. The massacre, however, of so many of the French clergy, and the banishment of so many more, is an honourable testimony in their favour. If their abilities were not sufficient to protect their religion, they showed that they could suffer for it.

Returning to the means employed for promoting the conspiracy, our author gives an account of the intrigues of the sophists in the various schools and seminaries throughout France, and of the secret academy, supposed to be instituted by Voltaire in 1762, or from that year to 1766, and which subsisted at the breaking out of the revolution. It was discovered by the secretary le Roi, who died of grief and remorse, when he perceived the progress of its principles. Fifteen of its members are ascertained by our author to have been Voltaire, D'Alembert, Diderot, Helvetius, Turgot, Condorcet, la Harpe, the keeper of the seals Lamoignon, Damilaville, Thiriot, the count D'Argental, Grimm, Saurin, baron Holbach, and le Roi. The last of these explained to a company in

Paris, in 1789, the meaning of *ECR : L'INF* : (*écrasez l'infame*) 'crush the wretch,' with which Voltaire concludes so many of his letters, and which our author had before learned to explain in the same way.

The remainder of this volume contains some remarks on the general progress of the conspiracy throughout Europe, the death of the chiefs, and the delusion which rendered the conspiracy against the altar so successful. In these we do not find any thing so striking as to merit particular notice. The author has proved his position, that there was a conspiracy of old standing, to overthrow religion, and certainly not confined to the religion of France only. He next proceeds to trace the antimonarchical conspiracy in Vol. II. but as we have extended the present article to a considerable length, we shall defer the consideration of that volume, as well as the reflections which have occurred to us on the wisdom and tendency of the author's whole plan.

A translation of the first volume has reached us. This has been executed in a very hasty manner, and is so incorrect and irregular in style, that we suspect it has been done by a Frenchman. Some passages, however, are given with spirit.

(To be continued.)

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*Le Voyageur à Paris : Tableau Pittoresque et Moral de cette Capitale.* Paris.

*A Descriptive View of the City of Paris, and the Manners and Customs of its Inhabitants.* 3 Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe. 1797.

THIS work contains a great variety of information and remark: but, being arranged in alphabetical order, it is unconnected and desultory. We shall not follow the order which the author has (we think, improperly) chosen; but, though our trouble will be greater, we shall form a more regular arrangement.

Among the numerous buildings which are described in these volumes, the palaces, formerly royal, claim early notice. A part of the Louvre is now appropriated to the use of architects, painters, sculptors, and engravers, who here exhibit their productions to public view; and those pictures, and other works of art, which are considered as national property, are deposited in this palace. Two of the halls of the Tuilleries are occupied by the council of elders, and that of the five hundred. The Luxembourg palace is now undergoing some alterations, which are not calculated for its real improvement. The building which was particularly called *le Palais Royal*; is now devoted to various uses; and a part of the ancient garden is covered

vered with modern erections. In the front of the Bourbon palace, a new hall is in preparation for the council of five hundred.

Many hotels are particularised, among which are the following: that which was formerly assigned to ambassadors sent on extraordinary occasions, and which is admired by architectural *connoisseurs*; that of Melmes, in which Henry II. sometimes resided; that of Cluny, which the compiler represents as a model of taste in the Gothic style; that of Bretonvilliers, in which are now some public offices; and the magnificent hotels of Salm and Soubise.

The hospital called Hôtel Dieu is chiefly modern, as the fire which happened in the year 1772, and which occasioned the loss of a considerable number of lives, nearly ruined the ancient building. It was customary to put four patients in one bed; but, by a recent order, the number is limited to two. They were attended, before the revolution, by 130 nuns, most of whom have been lately recalled to the hospital. Besides the receptacles of diseased persons, there are several foundations at Paris, into which *enfants-trouvés*, or foundlings, are admitted with less difficulty than into our hospital of the same kind near London.

The remains of several monasteries are noticed. According to an enumeration made in the year 1790, there were in Paris forty-eight religious houses, occupied by 909 men, and seventy-four, in which were 292 female devotees.

To the account of the monastic building which formerly belonged to the knights Templars, some anecdotes, relative to Louis XVI. and his family, are subjoined. While that unfortunate prince was confined in the Temple, he was accustomed to rise at six o'clock in the morning; and, having employed himself for a short time in devotion, he read till nine. He then attended his fellow-prisoners while they took their first meal; but he did not himself take any refreshment before dinner. After his return to his own apartment, he gave his son some lessons in geography and the Latin tongue; and his daughter was instructed by Marie Antoinette and the princess Elizabeth. An interval of recreation followed. At one o'clock the family dined; and conversation and reading divided the time till supper. Louis made a calculation of the number of volumes which he had read during five months of imprisonment. They amounted to 257; and among them were many of the Latin classics. As he read these authors with facility, he was a better scholar than most of the crowned heads of his time.

Of the use which is now made of the academical buildings

of the Sorbonne, we are not informed; but the external architecture is mentioned in terms of praise.

The ancient academies having been suppressed, the republican society, called the Institute of Arts and Sciences, is the chief of the new literary establishments. Its consultations and lectures take place at the Louvre. Two institutors and four associates are appointed for each department of art and science.

The library which belonged to the king is rich both in manuscripts and printed books; and, under the same roof, are a great number of busts and medals, and various curiosities. The manuscripts relative to the history of France, are said to amount nearly to 30,000; but this seems to be an exaggeration. This library is open to the public; as is that of St. Geneviève, which is also valuable. That of St. Germain des-Près was burned three years ago.

Omitting the mention of the streets and squares which are here described, we proceed to the theatres, with which the French metropolis abounds. That which is styled the theatre of the republic, is too lofty, but is not incommodious: it will hold 2023 persons. That of Louvois is more elegant, though less magnificent. The opera-house has been enriched, by the hand of taste, with appropriate decorations. At the theatre of Molière, and some others, only tragedies and comedies are represented; but, in several of these places of amusement, *vaudevilles*, *ballets*, and *pantomimes*, are also exhibited. Besides the theatres, the Parisians have a place of resort, resembling our Vaux-hall. This writer calls it *Waux-Hall*; and affirms, that it was so denominated, because a person of the name of *Waux* was the first who established such a place of diversion at London. But we can inform him, that the appellation arose from lord Vaux, who had a house on that spot, without being the author of the establishment in question.

A great number of detached *memoranda* are given, on the subject of ancient and modern customs and fashions; but it is not necessary to enter into these points in a review, as they only prove, that old absurdities are succeeded by new follies, and that dissipation and frivolity still prevail in Paris.

*Die Kunst das menschliche Leben zu verlängern. Von D. Christoph Wilhelm Hufeland. Jena. 1797.*

*The Art of prolonging Human Life. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Imported by Escher. 1797.*

THE rulers of Germany have obtained a respite from their much-loved employment, the destruction of human life; they

they have lost many of those machines in the shape of men, whom it was their whole business to form to a single purpose, and that the most unworthy of reasonable beings. Traders in these machines, they must consider the preservation of them as an object of importance: and the work before us will be interesting to them by suggesting new ideas, which they may turn to their own advantage. To others who look upon human life with the eyes of reason and benevolence; — who consider men as born to higher purposes than the beasts of the field, — a treatise on the means of preserving and prolonging life will in every point of view be more interesting: and the professor, who has been employing himself in the study to increase the happiness of his species, is without doubt a nobler and more honourable being than the chief whose daily and nightly thoughts are bent on its destruction. We rejoice that the university of Jena seems to be impressed with the same sentiments, and that it could afford a professor the opportunity of teaching a science of so much importance. In many universities professing to teach science in general, lectures on various parts lying within their course are frequently neglected; and it will appear to them extraordinary, that a class should be found willing to receive instructions upon such a subject as the means of preserving and prolonging life. They will confound a science, in which every man is interested, with a branch of it; with the cure of a particular disorder, which must be confined to one profession, and be practised by a particular order of men: but, in studying the art of prolonging life, the principles on which life depends, and the comparison of them in different classes of organised being, must not only afford a great variety of curious and important topics, but occasionally suggest hints which each man may apply with advantage to himself in the course of his existence.

The only danger in such a study is, lest a man should become too much occupied with himself — too attentive to every little circumstance supposed to influence the duration of life: and thus, instead of reaping the proper advantage from this study, he may become a miserable being; and, like the covetous wretch with his money, so he with his life will fall into the error, *propter vitam vivendi perdere causas*. Guarded against this prejudice, we may read the professor's lectures, and derive both pleasure and profit from the perusal. He divides his subject into two parts. In the first he considers the theoretical, in the second the practical division of the science. In the first lecture he gives a short history, with anecdotes, of the chief persons, who, like Cornaro, have by good rules attained to a long life, — or, like Cagliostro, Mesmer, Paracelsus, and other quacks, have made pretensions to a knowledge with which

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which they were totally unacquainted. The second lecture inquires into the nature or power of life, which is considered as the finest and most powerful agent in this world; which, like the electrical or magnetical force, gravity, and other powers, has its peculiar mode of action, is destroyed by peculiar circumstances, and is assisted by peculiar substances. The three chief assistants are light, warmth, and air, the oxygene.

‘Life has often been compared to a flame, and it is indeed similar in operation. Destructive and creative powers are with incredible activity continually contending within us, and every instant of our existence is a wonderful mixture of annihilation and creation. As long as the living power possesses its original freshness and energy, the creative power is the superior, and in the contest retains a considerable superfluity: the body then grows and proceeds to perfection. In the process, the two powers come to an equilibrium, and consumption is equal to regeneration. At last, from the diminution of the living power, and the wearing of the machine, the consumption overpowers regeneration; and expenditure, degradation, total dissolution, are the inevitable consequences. Every creature has three periods, — increase, perfection, diminution. The length of life depends on the quantity of original living power, the strength of the organs, the quickness or slowness of consumption, the perfection or imperfection of restoration.’

In the two next lectures, the life of plants and animals, upon the above-mentioned grounds, becomes the object of inquiry. The five following are dedicated to man. Examples are given of long and short life, — good precepts from the employments which produce either state, — the effect of body on mind, mind on body, — very proper encoiums on the married state, which is essential to the prolonging of life, as debauchery is destructive of it, — the effect of climate, activity, idleness, provision; from all which it appears, that men and women mistake, most unhappily for themselves, in esteeming routs, large companies, gaming-tables, opera-houses, parliament-houses, coaches, as essential to a long or a happy life; for life depends entirely upon moderation, and the enjoyment, within proper bounds, of every circumstance which can render the body healthy or the mind cheerful.

In the second part, the practice of the present age is considered, and contrasted with what ought to prevail under the preceding theory. Many of our novel-readers, and those who consider certain affections of the mind as the result of true religious temperament, and are carried away with their exalted raptures, are treated as labouring under a disease, which

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is the same in morality, and is as destructive to the mind, and consequently to the body, as the unhappy practice which has been known to be productive of the utmost unhappiness to youth. We were glad to find also, that the desire so prevalent in parents to bring forward their children, is here properly counteracted. One of the modes of shortening life is to strain the faculties of children too early. 'The least strain at this time of life is highly destructive. All labour of the head before the age of seven years is unnatural, and as hurtful to the body in its consequences as the secret practice above alluded to. Another mode is to study *invitâ Minervâ*, that is, subjects which are pursued unwillingly, not *con amore*. The greater pleasure there is in a study, the less hurt is in the strain. Hence, the choice of studies deserves great foresight: and woe befall the man who cannot attend to it!'

A practice, simple in itself, but of great consequence to an individual, we will from our own experience venture, in our author's words, to recommend to our readers. He speaks of it among much excellent advice on sleep. 'All the sorrows and the burthens of the day must be laid aside with the clothes: none of them should accompany us to our beds. It is astonishing how much influence habit has in this respect; nor is there any custom so bad as that of studying in bed or sleeping over a book. The active powers of the soul are thus set in motion exactly at the time when every thing around invites them to repose; and it is natural that the ideas now awakened will float in the head throughout the night, and be ever in action. It is not enough that our corporeal powers should be at rest: the spiritual man must also sleep. Sleep, without the latter case, is as insufficient as the opposite circumstance, the repose of the mind without that of the body, such as sleep in a lumbering coach upon a journey.'

Many other equally useful practices are recommended: and, throughout, as much attention, it appears, is necessary to the mind as the body. All idle fears and bad passions are as injurious as bad food or poisons. The long-liver must be a moral man, an active man, a good man; and, if we hear of instances of longevity in different characters, we must look for the reason in the original formation and strength of organs and the counteraction of some immoral practices, by the constant attention to circumstances favourable to length of life. It is to be presumed, that, as the author has given this instruction in the form of lectures, he will continue to make it the subject of future lectures; and farther improvements may be made in his system. In the present form, it is highly worthy of a translation.



*Montesquieu peint d'après ses Ouvrages, par Bertrand Barère, Ex-Député du Département des Hautes Pyrénées, à la Convention Nationale. Paris.*

*Montesquieu delineated from his Works, by Bertrand Barère, late Member of the National Convention. 8vo. 4s. Sewed. Imported by De Boffe. 1797.*

EVERY reader of the periodical prints may remember, that Barère was a frequent speaker in the Parisian assembly during the sway of Robespierre, and that he was distinguished by his subserviency to that tyrant. It may therefore be supposed, that his exile was not lamented by the generality of his countrymen, many of whom wished that he had suffered the fate of his arbitrary master. The comparative lenity, however, of the succeeding times, saved him from that extremity.

This politician, having a high opinion of the talents and the judgment of Montesquieu, was induced to think, that a recommendation of the least obnoxious sentiments of that writer might have some effect in bringing back the French to ideas of order and justice, and to regular theories of policy and legislation. This consideration gave him some comfort in the midst of his misfortunes; and he now offers his remarks not only to the friends of republican government, but to all who, under any form of administration, cultivate their reason, and cherish sentiments of philanthropy.

Having given a sketch of the progress of legislation, M. Barère traces Montesquieu from his first appearance in public life, when, as president of the parliament of Bourdeaux, he defended the cause of the people against the tyranny of the court. In that capacity, he proved that he was acquainted with the principles of law and the duties of a magistrate. While he continued in this office, he amused himself with the composition of his Persian Letters, in which he displayed his political and general knowledge, and satirised the manners of his countrymen, as well as the abuses of the government. This production, and his beautiful romance called the Temple of Gnidus, procured him the honour of a seat among the French academicians. He at length formed the scheme of his grand work on the Spirit of Laws, which employed his thoughts for many years. That he might prepare materials for this work by a personal observation of the customs and institutions of different countries, he undertook a tour into several of the European kingdoms and states. In this peregrination, England, which (says Barère) 'had reason to be proud of its government, at a time when Europe in general was destitute of regular laws and constitution, proved to Mont-

esquieu,

esquieu, what the isle of Crete was to Lycurgus, an useful school.' In the same breath, however, our author calls it the land of commercial intolerance, maritime tyranny, and political corruption.

There were only three writers, according to Barère, whose ideas could enlighten Montesquieu. These were, Tacitus, Plutarch, and Gravina. The first instructed him in developing the secret views of tyrants; the second informed him of the maxims and principles which influenced the great men whose lives he has written; and the third assisted him in penetrating the spirit of the 'immense and versatile legislation of the Romans.' His genius being reinforced by these aids, he discerned all the springs by which government is actuated, — ascertained the circumstances which promote the prosperity or contribute to the fall of states, — traced the mutual connection and dependency of laws, — and embraced the whole extent of the political world.

Barère, however, does not approve all the opinions of the great man whom he professes to admire. He allows, that Montesquieu was uniformly the foe of tyranny, and the friend of human happiness; but he thinks, that his ideas concerning monarchy are not always just, and that he encourages aristocratic notions and absurd prejudices. We may easily believe, that a man so democratic as Barère will differ in many points from the more enlightened investigator of the spirit of laws.

He is particularly eager to combat the idea of Montesquieu respecting the improbability of the long duration of a republic of large extent. He maintains, that a free press, political unity, the division of departments, the representative system, the national guard, the establishment of easy and rapid means of communication, and the energy of an executive directory, are calculated to render the French republic permanent, however great may be the extent of its territories.

'Liberty (he says), when confined to a small country, resembles a strong liquor, the fermentation of which injures and even destroys the recipient vessel: it throws petty states into frequent convulsions, and produces repeated changes of government, by which they are at length subjected to the oppressions of an insolent aristocracy. On the contrary, the ferment of liberty imparts to great republics a due portion of vigour and activity; and no states but those of such a description can connect, with military, maritime, colonial, commercial, and agricultural interests; the progress of literature and science, the splendor of the fine arts, the commemorative utility of national festivals, the establishment of a beneficial system of

public

public education, and the means of promoting, by due rewards, an emulation of virtue and patriotism.'

He afterwards refers to the insurmountable obstacles which an ambitious man would meet with, if he should attempt to usurp sovereign power in France. But we do not admit the full force of his arguments, or rather his allegations. He has too high an opinion of the regularity of the French government, and of the republican virtue of the representative body; and he trusts too implicitly to the influence of other circumstances, which, however they may seem to favour his opinion, may not be so powerful as to preclude the future success of the friends of monarchical government.

The political character of Montesquieu is thus drawn from his works —

' Though not an actual legislator (we translate freely the remarks of Barère), he inspires others with a skill in legislation. He seizes the spirit of laws, discusses their principles, weighs the motives which actuated their authors, analyses their component parts, compares their results; and asks all governments, in the presence of history, what good they have done to mankind. Not content with weighing, in the new balance of his mind, the benefits and the disadvantages of all human institutions, he boldly unveils to the public eye the vices and deformities of political bodies, states the causes of their corruption, and predicts the epoch of their decline. He teaches individuals the use which they ought to make of their liberty; and instructs nations in the vigorous defence of their rights. He instils into the minds of citizens the duty of obedience to the laws; and exhorts magistrates to distribute impartial justice. To legislators, he suggests the necessity of cultivating moderation and humanity, and of framing such laws as may be adapted to the genius of the people and the nature of the government. To statesmen, he recommends an observance of moral obligation; to kings, the exercise of a mild sway; to republics, virtue and patriotism. His glory is far greater than that of legislators, because he is the genius who enlightens them. He is entitled to the homage of persons of all ages, all countries, and all governments, as the reformer and benefactor of the world. He is, as it were, a guardian angel, equally studious of the prosperity of empires, and of the inalienable rights of man.'

In this pamphlet, we meet with eloquence more frequently than argument, with greater force than correctness of style, and with an occasional substitution of prejudice for judgment: but it deserves the attentive perusal of politicians, who may derive from it some useful hints.

*Dt*

*De la Pensée du Gouvernement, par Bertrand Barère. Paris.*

*A Dissertation on the French Government, by Barère. Sup. 4s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe. 1797.*

**PROSECUTING** his literary career, this republican statesman promises to favour the world with a copious work, of which the volume now offered is a small part. The grand divisions of the whole will relate to the formation of laws by the two councils, and the enforcement of those laws by the executive directory. The first part being postponed, the business of the executive department is discussed on the present occasion.

The institution of the directory is applauded by Barère as a measure of profound policy, calculated for the effectual support of the republic. It is, in his opinion, 'the first solemn and truly constitutional guaranty which the French have obtained by their courage, organised by their laws, and accepted by their will, for the security of their rights, the maintenance of their liberty, the promotion of justice, and the acquisition of national glory.' Whether it will prove such a guaranty, is a point of great uncertainty.

He exhorts the members of the directory to pay the most scrupulous attention to the laws of the republic, that their example may serve as a model of regular obedience; to evince, in their resolutions and conduct, a high degree of firmness, vigilance, and circumspection; to reform all abuses in the administration; and prevent the public functionaries from neglecting their duty. That the laws may be properly put in execution, their spirit, he observes, must be well understood; and the directory ought to investigate the motives which led to the formation of the respective statutes, that the true intent of each may be communicated to the subordinate officers of the commonwealth.

Concerning the general police, he makes some remarks which are just rather than novel. On this head, he takes occasion to stigmatise the British cabinet. He expresses his hope, that the officers of the police will keep a strict eye over all foreigners; the greater part of whom, he says, are the agents of kings and the emissaries of the court of London. 'The English (he adds) will long be eager to corrupt and embroil the French republic: they will degrade and vilify our institutions and our manners, calumniate our government by the modum of our own journals, and pursue all the means in their power for the ruin of our establishment. Already has that unfriendly court given great embarrassment to our nation by sending over swarms of spies, stock-jobbers, incendiaries, and

and traitors; and we have reason to dread the machinations of the same court even in time of peace; for it is the intention of the rulers of Great Britain to make the future peace a kind of masked war.' But we trust, that the spirit of our countrymen will not suffer any minister to adopt such a scheme.

In the chapter which treats of military affairs, we are informed of the success of the endeavours of the directory for restoring discipline, and correcting the abuses which had crept into the republican armies; and some good advice is given for the prevention of future relaxation and disorder among the armed defenders of the state.

The regeneration of the French marine is a point which Barère warmly recommends; but this object is more difficult than he imagines. He allows, that the English are pre-eminent in the naval department; but he is confident that they will not long remain masters of the sea, in opposition to the united navies of France, Holland, and Spain.

On the subject of public credit, he reprobates the prevailing system of finance in strong terms, as productive of permanent mischief. He looks forward to that period, when nations shall be so far enlightened, as to abolish the practice of funding; when governments shall be obliged to relinquish that wantonness of expenditure, which the facility of borrowing has long encouraged; and when wars will not only be less frequent, but, whenever they occur, will be less durable. Such times, however, are rather the objects of fond hope than of real expectation.

Making a distinction between government and administration, he observes, that the constituent assembly, by its decrees and establishments, deluged France with administrations; and that the state then ceased to be governed. His meaning is, that too many offices were erected, so as to create confusion, and weaken the energy of the primary authorities. He adds, that the legislative assembly, by its weakness and divisions, suffered the whole power of the republic to be usurped by the government; and that the national convention maintained, at once, an excess of administration, of government, and of legislation. But the constitution of the year 1795 destroyed the first of those excesses: the formation of a limited executive directory is calculated (he thinks) to remove for ever the fear of the second; and the return of the third will be prevented by the intended simplification of the laws.

He expatiates, with proper spirit, on the claims of the people to a perfect freedom of the press. But, as this is a topic which has been frequently discussed, we shall not dwell on his remarks.

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He complains of the want of attention to purity of manners; not that he requires the strictness of Spartan virtue, but would banish those corrupt and vicious habits which throve during the late monarchy, and which the new system of government has not sufficiently checked.

He is of opinion, that the directors of the republic have not paid due regard to the establishment of such institutions as may aid the efficacy of the legal code. 'Laws (he says) merely command; but institutions persuade and inspire: the former have an external influence, while the latter regenerate and re-create.' An individual, indeed, may obey the laws of a commonwealth without being a republican in his heart: but the effect of ceremonies and institutions will be an adoption of the manners and spirit most congenial with the existing form of government.

After other disquisitions, the volume is closed with observations adapted to the return of peace. The various means of national improvement, which the French will then be at leisure to pursue, are pointed out with an appearance of patriotic enthusiasm; and we hope that their present enemies will have a speedy opportunity of executing similar schemes.

*Fables de Mancini-Nivernois.* Paris. 1796.

*A Variety of Fables,\* by M. Mancini-Nivernois. 2 Vols. 8vo. 7s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe.*

**T**HIS fabulist is not so vain of his talents, as to attempt to rival the celebrated La Fontaine. He is fully sensible of his inferiority to that writer; and his readers will probably agree with him in this opinion.

Fifty-three years before the publication of these fables, the author was enrolled among the members of the French academy; and many of the pieces in this collection were read at different meetings of that society. He alleges the trite pretence of the earnest solicitations of friends, as his motive for appearing in print. Those who have attained the age of eighty years (he observes), feel a diminution of their power of resisting importunities, as well as a decline of all other powers; and he at length yielded to persuasion.

The hints of many of the fables are borrowed from other writers. From those which are original, we will select some short specimens.

The following fable exemplifies the influence of vanity and jealousy —

‘ Camarades et commensaux  
Un chien, un chat et deux oiseaux,

APP. VOL. XX. NEW ARR.

O o

Etaient

Étaient sous le commun empire  
 D'un homme qui sut les instruire  
 A vivre ensemble avec amour.  
 Cet homme faisait son étude  
 D'essayer sur eux tour à tour  
 Les doux liens de l'habitude ;  
 Il réussit, et tout le jour  
 Ils jouaient entr'eux comme frères  
 Sans que jamais il survînt d'accident,  
 Sans que jamais bec, ni griffe, ni dent,  
 S'en vinssent brouiller les affaires.  
 Tout au rebours, dans le même logis  
 Le même homme avait quatre fils :  
 Il leur disait comme il faut qu'on s'entr'aime  
 Pour être heureux et tranquille ici-bas ;  
 Mais chaque jour quelques débats  
 Faisaient avorter son système.  
 L'un avait fait trop bien son thème ;  
 Les autres en étaient jaloux :  
 L'aigreur venait, et puis les coups.  
 Le bon père était à la gêne.  
 Comment donc, disait-il, j'aurai réduit sans peine  
 Quatre animaux de penchant ennemis  
 A vivre sans querelle ! et dans mes propres fils  
 Je ne puis étouffer des semences de haine ! —  
 Vraiment, lui dit quelqu'un, voilà l'espèce humaine ;  
 Et voulez-vous savoir la vérité ?  
 Les animaux ont bien chacun leur dose  
 De vicieux penchants, mais point de vanité :  
 Vos fils en ont, et c'est la cause  
 De leur triste rivalité.  
 ' L'amour propre de l'homme est bien mal inventé !  
 Avec les penchants on compose ;  
 L'habitude réforme tout ;  
 C'est le secret de la métamorphose :  
 L'amour-propre est la seule chose  
 Dont elle ne vient point à bout.' Vol. i. p. 147.  
 In another piece, a lesson is given to tyrants —  
 ' Messire loup s'établit un matin  
 Au beau milieu d'une garenne.  
 Vous jugez bien que Jean Lapin  
 Reçut un tel hôte avec peine.  
 Mais comment faire ? il fallait fêter doux.  
 Il n'est tribunal de justice,  
 Il n'est droit public ni police

Entre

Entre les lapins et les loups :  
Le droit du fort, c'est le code  
Que ces derniers suivent tous.  
Dieu nous garde que la mode  
En vienne aussi parmi nous !  
Son régime n'est pas doux.  
Bientôt lapins s'en ressentirent ;  
Ce fut en vain qu'ils se blottirent  
Dans leurs trous le jour tout entier ;  
Il fallait sortir du terrier  
A l'heure de la picorée.  
Sire loup en faisait curée  
Dès qu'ils mettaient le nez dehors ;  
Autant de vus, autant de morts.  
Dans cette extrémité si rude,  
Nécessité leur suggéra  
Une ruse qui les tira  
De leur étuelle servitude.  
Ils creusèrent un souteffrain  
Peu large, mais profond, dont la superficie  
Ne pouvoit supporter que le poids d'un lapin.  
Puis sur le soir, Jeannot sacrifiant sa vie  
Avec le cœur d'un vrai Romain,  
S'étala sur le lit, broutant le romarin,  
Caracolant, sautant, jouant farce complotte.  
Le loup le voit, accourt, et tandis qu'il se jette  
Avec fureur sur le brave Jeannot,  
La terre fond, s'entr'ouvre ; il est pris comme un sot,  
Et trébuche au fond de l'abîme  
Pour ne s'en relever jamais.  
Conquérants et sultans, ménagez vos sujets !  
Le faible est fort quand on l'opprime.

Vol. II. p. 148.

Ease and simplicity are the characteristics of the generality of these fables ; but many are jejune and uninteresting ; and the number might have been diminished without injury to the reputation of the writer, as well as without loss of entertainment to the reader.

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*Philosophie de Monsieur-Nicolas. Par l'Auteur du Cœur Humain dévoilé. 3 Tom. 12mo. Paris. 1796.*

*The Philosophy of Monsieur-Nicolas. By the Author of the Human Heart laid open. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. sewed. Imported by De Boffe.*

ALTHOUGH we find in the philosophy of Monsieur Nicolas a plentiful supply of novelty and speculation, we



are far from having the high opinion of its utility that the editor seems to entertain. If that writer possessed, as he tells us, a mind of the most comprehensive kind, and sources of information that have been little investigated by others; he has certainly employed them to very little purpose in the construction of this most *elaborate* system of nature.

The idea of those great advantages, we must acknowledge, at first induced us to hope that we should meet with a rich store of philosophical truth; but we had not proceeded very far, before the wildness and extravagance of the author's conclusions sufficiently convinced us that we had little to expect from such *profound* researches.

The investigations of our philosopher are of the most extensive kind; they embrace almost every thing contained in the immense range of nature. In conducting these inquiries, the author first unfolds his ideas of the nature of existence; which seem to be, that in the great chain of life there is a regular gradation from the highest link to the very lowest. On this position he dwells much longer than was necessary, as it neither possesses novelty in itself, nor is enforced by any new application of argument or fact. It seems, however, to be the substratum or basis on which much of the reasoning of these volumes rests.

This foundation being laid, the author proceeds to attempt an explanation of the origin of those vast bodies on which animals and vegetables live, and in which mineral substances are formed. These are the planets and comets; of which he says, "*L'être-principe est le centre général; le soleil, le centre de son système; la terre un globe, centre de son satellite et de son atmosphère; l'homme, et tout animal, un centre individuel, qui est nécessairement pour lui-même le centre de l'univers.*"

Rejecting the systems which have been proposed by Buffon and some other writers, our philosopher endeavours to show, that the earth and much of what it contains were originally formed by the process of crystallisation. In supporting this he deals largely in conjecture; but we cannot observe that he has brought to his assistance any facts that have escaped other inquirers on the same subject.

Having considered this point, he enters into an examination of the origin and use of the planetary system, and enters into much discussion concerning the nature and effects of comets, &c. These topics afforded much scope for ingenuity and speculation; and the author has not failed to avail himself of the opportunity which they presented. But, in the mass of reasoning and conjecture with which this part of his work abounds, we have not been able to discover any of those bold and important truths which the want of a *proper* mode of philoso-

philosophising had, as he says, prevented us from comprehending.

Nor, on other subjects, is the writer more successful, or the discoveries which he presents to the inquirer more satisfactory. The nature of the deity, the constitution of man, and the relation in which he stands to him, are not very easily explained; they involve much serious thought and deep reflection. Our author, however, with his usual temerity, takes up these inquiries, and indulges himself in much latitude of remark upon them: but, notwithstanding the new light with which modern philosophy has supplied him, they seem to elude his grasp, and to remain nearly in the state in which he found them.

Having fully explained his philosophical ideas concerning the origin, order, and gradation of the human species, and other animals, on the earth, and informed us that the same arrangement takes place among vegetables, &c. he considers the whole under three heads or kingdoms, as has been done by many writers on natural history. Each of these kingdoms of nature is examined at considerable length, and with much labour and industry. Some particulars are, however, described with a concise perspicuity, while others, and those of less importance, are detailed with the most fatiguing minuteness.

But the author here deviates into so many tracks of inquiry, and starts so many objects of investigation, that it is not easy to follow him, or to present the reader with the conclusions which he draws. They will be much better understood by consulting the work itself. It must be observed, however, that, in many parts of these volumes, the author discovers the narrow prejudices and weak credulity of the naturalist; and in others, his philosophy, in our opinion, is far from being founded on fact, or supported by just observation. Of this we have abundant proof in the remarks that are made on those substances which are here deemed elementary, as fire, air, water, and earth. With regard to the first, we are told, that

‘ It is æther, a pure subtile volatile salt, free from an earthy, a watery, and an aerial basis; which is always moving, and communicates its motion to those substances that are capable of serving it in the way of food; such, for instance, as wood and bitumens; or such as are proper for conducting it, as metals, stones, and even water, &c. It is by this fiery salt (*feu-sel*) or rather saline fire (*sel-feu*), that nature performs her operations. It is her principal agent. By this fundamental principle of light and heat, considered as a salt, light is enabled to stimulate the optic nerves, and thereby produce vision. It is by this fluid, acting as a salt, that heat is made

made to operate on our organs, and to warm or burn them. No other substance than salt endued with different degrees of volatility, can act upon sensible beings. This fiery salt frequently combines itself with other bodies, and becomes of an earthy nature; it also, by the assistance of animal filtration, becomes of the nature of shell; by its union with air and water, it acquires a stony consistence; with water, and a very slight portion of earth, it constitutes different kinds of salts, under which combination it is dispersed through the various productions of the earth. When in a state of combination with oily substances, it forms sulphur and bitumens; with the liquor of siliceous stones it constitutes crystals and diamonds; with calcareous earth and sulphur, it produces the metals and semi-metals. Even stones are not altogether destitute of it; but they possess it in a very small quantity. Fire, therefore, like æther and salt, is a general element that pervades all nature; the secondary matter of the deity; the constituent principle of the heavenly luminaries; the atmosphere of God, in which those bodies move around the universal centre.

On the other substances which are here called elements, the reflections of this writer are not more pertinent, or more just and correct.

In the beginning of the second part of our author's philosophical investigations, we meet with an examination of the opinions which have been maintained by Buffon concerning the origin of the planets and their satellites. Here we have, indeed, but little of solid argument, though the writer attempts to expose the ignorance and absurdity of the notions which are under his consideration. We make but a slow progress towards truth by merely substituting one conjecture for another, or one hypothesis in the room of another. It does not appear, however, that this author has done any thing more.

Nor is he much more happy in his explanations of the nature of fecundation, the causes of the difference of sex, or the manner in which the foetus is supported. These subjects are, indeed, only glanced at, in his very rapid discussion of the various matters that present themselves to his imagination. From topics of this kind, we are conducted into a labyrinth of metaphysical speculation, through the mazes of which we shall not attempt to wander.

In concluding this part, we have some ingenious observations on different substances that belong to the mineral kingdom, with a multiplicity of conjectures respecting their nature and formation.

The last part comprehends a further illustration of several points that have been already touched upon; and an examination

mination of the different systems of nature that have been advanced by writers, both ancient and modern. Here our author is more full and particular; and his reflections in general are more just and interesting.

Having given this analytical view of the contents of the volumes before us, we shall present the reader with a passage or two, in order to show more fully the manner in which the author treats the topics that come under his consideration, and the nature of his philosophy. The peculiarity of the arrangement prevents us from extracting the more speculative passages.

On the vegetable kingdom, the author makes a few reflections of a philosophical nature: but his attention is more particularly directed in the way of the naturalist.

Those of the first kind we shall insert, as they tend in some degree to explain the peculiarity of our author's opinions.

The same circumstance of gradation is equally observable among trees and plants, as among the animal and insect tribes. The tree is, as it were, the representative of the animal, and the herb that of the insect. The plant would also seem to be the image or copy of the tree; for it not unfrequently happens, that a shrub in one country is a tree in another, and a plant in the third. Shrubs, therefore, constitute the different links which form the chain between trees and plants, in the same way that the smaller kinds of trees do between the larger ones and the shrubs. The lichens and the mosses mark the transition from the vegetable to the mineral kingdom on the one hand, while on the other it is extremely easy to perceive in the star-fish and the sea-rose the almost insensible gradations from vegetable to animal life. It is highly curious and interesting to mark this scarcely perceptible change and passage of one class or kingdom into the other. It affords a ray of light, by which we may be guided in our researches into the mysteries of nature.

Among the different kinds of vegetables, there are some that afford nourishing substances, as the chestnut-tree, the bread-fruit-tree (which is only a species of the former), the walnut-tree, the almond-tree, the pear-tree, the apple-tree, the different grains, cabbages, spinach, sorrel, onions, and turnips; others are unproductive, as the elm, the linden, the maple, and the yoke-elm; a third sort affords liquors, as the vine, the cherry, the palm, and the gooseberry. There is also a fourth kind, which is altogether poisonous, as the manchineel-tree, wolf's-bane, and hemlock.

Sometimes even those plants, which, in the language of medicine, are termed *simples*, prove poisons when administered in large doses. In general, however, the effects of medicinal plants

plants on animal bodies are signally beneficial. They evince in some measure the antiquity of the human race; the uses of those plants having been pointed out by the nutritive quality which they possessed. Hence some have attempted to ascertain, by way of instruction, in what manner certain other plants, and their anti-nutritive effects, might be employed; for instance, those of the purgative kind. More frequently, however, our knowledge in these matters has proceeded from chance rather than intentional experiment. But sometimes it has happened, that animals, by being poisoned with particular herbs, have given occasion to important and useful discoveries.'

After this, our philosophical observer proceeds to inform us, that

'Vegetables seem to be particularly adapted to the support of animals, even those of the carnivorous class, especially after having been prepared by means of salt and fire, two substances that in some degree carnify their vegetable nature by the addition of their fleshy principles.

'Roots, in particular, acquire by coction a very nutritious property; such, for instance, as the turnip, the truffle, the parsnip, the carrot, and, still in a higher degree, the various kinds of potatoe, notwithstanding the discredit into which they have occasionally fallen; for culinary preparation not only produces some change in the nature of these substances, by a process not very different from the manner in which fruit is ripened, but also disposes them to an easy surrender of their nutritive particles, in consequence of the solubility which they acquire by the operation.'

Here we meet with a more extended inquiry concerning these substances, and the particles that are the most proper for the formation of animals.

'What, then, is a vegetable? It is a composition formed of the most crude particles, which are incapable of arranging themselves in such a manner as to constitute animal substances; but which, nevertheless, contain a large proportion of the molecules that intimately resemble such as enter into the composition of animals.

'These last are constituted of five different kinds of molecules:

'1. The molecules that are susceptible of intelligence, into the composition of which there ought to enter, besides the four known elements of bodies, or, as some will have it, the four modifications of one element, a large portion of *intellectual* or *intelligential* fluid. The molecules that are capable of intelligence, constitute the substance of the brain and spinal marrow, of the delicate nerves of the diaphragm, and of that

that *sensorium* which has been termed, by lovers and the vulgar, the heart, and which, properly speaking, is the soul of each living being.

'2. Nervous molecules of the second order, which are formed of those fluids that are known to be the most subtile, as light, heat, the electric and magnetic fluids: these constitute the nerves of the eyes, the ears, the organs of scent or smell, and also those of taste and touch.

'3. The molecules of the third order or kind, from which the flesh is formed.

'4. The molecules of the fourth sort, which constitute the bones. And lastly,

'5. Those of the fifth kind, from which the nails and the hair are produced.'

Such are the opinions which the *deep* and laborious researches of *this* philosopher have supplied on the curious subject of the nature of vegetable existence. But, on other matters, he is still more *profound*, more visionary, and more extravagant in forming hypotheses and conjectures. Yet, in the compilation of the work, he seems to have had in view the exposition of elementary principles in a systematical way: but, from the neglect of judicious arrangement, and the very desultory manner in which many of the discussions are conducted, the reasonings and observations which are offered are frequently very much involved, and rendered difficult to the reader.

*Altes und Neues Vorder und Mittel Asien, oder pragmatisch-geographische, physche, und statistische Schilderung und Geschichte des Persischen Reichs von den ältesten Zeiten bis auf diesen Tag. Herausgegeben von S. F. Gunther Wahl, königlich Preussischen Interpr. und Professor zu Halle. Erster Band. Mit Kupfern und einer neuen Karte. 8vo. Leipzig, 1795.*

*Hither and Middle Asia ancient and modern, or a general geographical, physical, and statistical Description and History of the Persian Kingdom, from the earliest Time to the present. By S. F. Gunther Wahl, Interpreter to the King of Prussia, and Professor at Halle. Vol. I. illustrated with Engravings, and a new Map.*

**P**ERSIA, whether ancient or modern, constitutes so considerable a section of the globe, and the information concerning it has hitherto remained in a state so diffused, that few topics of history are more open to the historian, and hardly any that claims to be of so much importance. Yet, — inviting

as

as the subject in itself may seem, — the extent and variety it embraces, with the learning and application requisite for the execution, render it a labour little less than Herculean. It is with pleasure, however, that we see it undertaken by a writer who is every way equal to the task. Nor, in giving this judgment concerning him, are we apprehensive of committing ourselves, if, beside the author's other publications, this volume, of almost a thousand pages, can be deemed a competent warrant. But, that our readers may determine as well as ourselves, we will here present them with the outline of the design of the author, who flatters himself that, when he shall have completed his task, the public will be in possession of a work which will clear up a principal part of the ancient and modern history of Asia, and place in a distinct light the spirit, laws, customs, arts, and sciences, of one of the most remarkable nations of mankind.

To this undertaking a preface is prefixed, in which (as Sir William Jones has done with respect to our own language) professor WAHL states to his readers the rules he hath followed in expressing oriental characters by German, interpersing explanations from the other languages of Europe; at least, from the English, French, and Russian.

This is followed by a general introduction, containing an estimate of the respective merits of the Eastern writers, and of the Greek and Roman supplementary to them.

The mass of the work itself is divided into TWO PARTS, the former of which comprehends, under different heads, a general description of the Persian kingdom. The first of these divisions refers to a map of Persia, and the sources of information subservient to its history. Observations are detailed on the general and partial maps already in being, and on that constructed by the author. This disquisition, which includes every thing geographical we know on the subject (with the exception of the map in lieutenant Moor's *Narrative*), is followed by as copious an account of the principal works of ancient or modern times that relate to the history, comprehending the later systematical treatises, voyages, and travels; the classical writers, whether of Greece and Rome, or orientals, printed or in manuscript; including universal and particular histories, disquisitions cosmographical and physical, miscellaneous collections, or poetical compositions. — This division of the volume we scruple not to recommend, as pointing out more ample sources of information relative to the East than have hitherto been traced.

The *second section* of the FIRST PART is a chorographical summary, exhibiting the names, situations, extent, and boundaries, of the vast kingdom of Persia, under the two heads of territories

territories *beyond*, and *within*, its proper geographical limits ; the former comprehending Asia Minor and the islands appertaining ; European Greece with its islands ; Macedonia, Thrace, Syria, Phœnicia, and Palestine ; part of Arabia Deserta, and Arabia Petræa ; Yemen or Arabia Felix ; Egypt and part of Africa ; part of India and Maawaraa'n-nahr, and a part of great Tartary, Daaghestan, Leshghistan, and the confines of Caucasus. Within Persia proper, are included accounts of Georgia, Schyrwan, Armenia, Media (Aderbydjaen, Moghan, Ghylan, and Dylem, Iraak Ajemy), Hyrcania (Maasanderan and Thabrestan, Jorjan, Dehestan), Chowaarefim, Chor'assan, Methran, Kherman (with Moghistan, Laaristan, Ormous), Faarissistan, Choussistan, Iraak Araby (Babylonia), Eljesyre or Mesopotamia, Assyria, and Khurdistan.

A *third section* comprehends the waters, mountains, vales, and plains ; the *first*, including lakes, seas, and rivers, — the *second*, Caucasus, Imaüs, and Emodus, Taurus (Antitaurus, Taurus, and Hypotaurus), — and the *third*, the interior of Caucasus, Antitaurus, and Hypotaurus. Under this last head, the professor investigates the site of the garden of Eden from the account given by Moses, and points out the agreement of the history of the first pair in it with the symbolical representations of the Zend-Avesta. The physical properties of the countries constituting the kingdom of Persia close the *third general division* of this part of the work, under *three heads*, of which the *first* includes climate and soil ; the *second*, the inhabitants, classified by national distinctions, and mixture ; bodily form and constitution ; longevity ; diet and modes of life ; diseases ; degrees of civilisation, and state of the arts : to which is subjoined a view of the other kingdoms of nature, animal, vegetable, and mineral.

Such is a sketch of this interesting work, to the close of the first volume. The second presents a particular description of the kingdom of Persia, under *seven distinct points of view* ; of which, the *first* adverts to its topography, and the *second* to its history, going back to the earliest times, and coming down to the inhabitants of Asia of the present day. The object of the professor in this detail is to place the ancient history and chronology of Persia in a new and interesting light, as well as essentially to contribute toward the completion of our universal history.

The *third chapter* has a retrospect to the œconomy of Persia, under the articles of dress ; habitations ; domestic occupations ; domestic amusements ; manners of civil and social life ; rural œconomy ; management of land, agriculture, gardening, planting ; breeding of cattle ; œconomical employments ;



breeding of silk-worms, dyeing, &c. modes of hunting; working of mines; manufactures, trade, and navigation.

The subject of the *fourth* chapter is its political constitution, under which are considered its introduction, and the changes and form of its government in general, in reference to the monarch, the state of the kingdom, its resources, and institutions, military, civil, and financial, together with its political interests.

The *fifth* chapter concerns the establishment of religious worship, in respect both to the peculiar religion of Persia, and to the foreign rituals exercised within it.

The professor, in appropriating the *sixth* chapter to legislation, adverts to the institution of the two-fold system of religion and polity; legal records and canonical collections; the religious institute, as dogmatical, liturgical, and moral; civil law; penal or criminal law; the law of the state; the law of property; the laws of war and of nations.

The *concluding* chapter is devoted to the state of literature, under the heads of language, writing, books, academies, and schools; the sciences, and men of letters, in every department.

Of the map announced in the title, we can only express our expectation that it will be superior to any hitherto given; for it has not yet been delivered. The other engravings, though sufficient for illustration, have but little excellence to boast. The first presents a romantic landscape, with a remarkable bridge, ill executed in mezzotinto. The second exhibits tiaras and diadems of a great variety of forms. The third, contains detached articles of dress; whilst the fourth and fifth represent the human figure of both sexes under different habiliments, ancient and modern.

The work at large is so interesting and important, that a translation, we doubt not, will soon be undertaken. We take the liberty, however, of hinting, that it can be well executed by none but a scholar.

*Mes Soixante Ans. Épître en Vers. Par-M. Le Texier.*

*A Poetical Epistle on the Author's Attainment of the Age of Sixty Years. 4to. 4s. 9d. sewed. De Boffe. 1797.*

**T**HIS piece contains a sketch of the life, and an account of the present situation, of a native of France, well known in the circles of fashion, as a man of letters and of taste. He informs us, that he received the usual education in the learned languages; that, being at length weary of his classical pursuits,

suits, he began, in his twentieth year, to think of less serious employment; that he cultivated social pleasures, and entered into a course of idleness and dissipation; that, having passed twenty years of his life in gaiety and mere amusement, he resolved to make atonement by study, and by the exercise of prudence; that the success of this plan exceeded his expectations; and that he became, as it were, a new man. He also intimates that he has been involved in a law-suit by the malice of a female devil (*un démon féminin*), but that he trusts to the purity of British justice for a favourable decision of his cause.

He speaks of himself, at his present age, with frankness and pleasantry.

‘ Il est donc bien certain que j’ai mes soixante ans !  
Mais j’ai bon pied, bon œil, et j’ai toutes mes dents ;  
Je marche sans bâton, et j’écris sans lunettes ;  
J’aime assez le bon vin, je chante des gouguettes.

Au-delà de ce que je vaudrais,  
Je ne veux pas que l’on me prise.  
J’ai dit parfois quelques bons mots ;  
Et j’ai su dire aussi l’excellente bêtise.  
Je fais même assez bien l’innocent Calembour ;  
Qu’importe, si l’on rit, si je ris à mon tour.  
Le rire du vieux temps n’est plus du bel usage,  
Mais très-salubre à l’homme, il est bon pour le sage.

‘ J’aime avec passion ce bel art enchanteur  
Qui fait rire l’esprit, et fait pleurer le cœur.  
J’ai noirci le papier de quelques rapsodies,  
J’ai fait de petits vers, j’ai fait des comédies ;  
Et sans de certains accidents,  
Que j’éprouvai dans mon jeune âge,  
Sous un maître inflexible et de cruels parents,  
J’en aurois fait mille fois davantage.’ P. 7.

Having mentioned his two children, he expresses his wish that some person of opulence would bequeath a legacy for their future support. This meanness is disgusting; and the request comes with an ill grace from one who lives in a state of affluence, while many of his countrymen resident in this kingdom are pining in indigence. With a view of inducing some testator to gratify his family, he adds —

‘ Le plaisir d’obliger sera sa récompense :  
Des biens c’est le plus grand de tous,  
Lorsque l’on peut compter sur la reconnaissance ;  
Il sera donc bien plus heureux que nous,  
Puisque dans ce monde il sera

Heureux

§42 *Schmeisser's View of the State of the Sciences in France*

Heureux de ses bienfaits, de notre gratitude ;  
 Dans l'autre monde il jouira  
 Du prix de sa vertu par la béatitude.' P. 28.

In a postscript, he recurs to the mention of his misfortunes, and affirms that he is in danger of being ruined : but he consoles himself with the consideration of his talents, which he is determined to employ with zeal and perseverance. He therefore offers his services to the public in general —

' A tout âge, à tout sexe ici j'offre mes soins ;  
 Je me crois en état d'instruire la jeunesse,  
 Je suis sûr de pouvoir amuser la vieillesse :  
 Si je puis être utile, adieu tous mes chagrins.  
 ' Sexe charmant, c'est vous que je réclame ;  
 Sensible à mes malheurs, vous les réparerez :  
 C'est pour l'honneur du corps que vous travaillerez ;  
 Puisque tous mes malheurs me viennent d'une femme.  
 ' Et vous, mon protecteur, vous, public généreux,  
 Vous me pardonnerez ce triste bavardage ;  
 J'ai soixante ans passés ; c'est le foible de l'âge ;  
 Je n'ai point d'autres torts, et je suis malheureux.'

P. 36.

There are some pleasing passages in this production ; mingled, however, with the effusions of frivolity and affectation.

*Beiträge zur kenntnis des gegenwärtigen zustandes der Wissenschaften in Frankreich. Gesammelt Während seines Aufenthalts in Paris von G. Schmeisser. Erster Theil. Hamburg. 1797.*

*A Sketch for a better Acquaintance with the present Situation of the Sciences in France. By G. Schmeisser, F. R. SS. London and Edinburgh. F. L. and M. SS. at London, and Corresponding Member of the Société Philomathique at Paris. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Imported by Escher.*

THE author of this work, as our readers will see from his titles, is in a situation to form a good judgment of the state of science in France ; and he has made excellent use of his residence at Paris. While other persons have been attentive chiefly to the splendor of the French arms, or to the internal troubles of the nation, this writer has kept his eye on the progress of science ; and it appears from his account, that no state has hitherto existed in the world, which in the time of profound peace has done so much for science as the French in the midst of their tumults. It seems to be the intention of the chief men in France that the republic should aim at every species of glory ;

glory; and having shown Europe what it can do with the sword, it is now to distinguish itself equally in the more profitable pursuits of science and literature. Without bestowing a thought on the trifling concerns of political disputes, which will die with the few men whose business is intrigue, we must confess that there is every reason for us to admire, in this respect, the conduct of our enemies. While we are denying to them the honours of civilisation, they are making every preparation for the extension of knowledge into every class. The form of the republic, perhaps, requires this: for, no cast or sect being allowed to possess exclusive privileges, the only way to prevent the rise of new casts, is to make knowledge attainable by every one, and to give distinction only to personal merit.

We have first a full account of the national institution, the names of its members, and a description of its buildings. One circumstance struck us in the account of the sittings. Our author was much pleased with the liberality of the members, and the judicious selection of papers: yet, says he, 'I must confess, that, during the time of reading the papers, I missed very much the stillness and solemnity which should prevail in such a meeting, and to which I was so much accustomed in our society in London. I think we must look for the ground of this restlessness and real imperfection in the lively temperament and inclination to dispute, which seem to be innate in every Frenchman.'

The *Ecole Polytechnique*, or school of arts, founded in 1795, comes next before us: and, from our author's description, it promises more than any similar institution. The number of students is 360: the instructors are the first men in every line in Paris. We may judge of the plan from one circumstance: there are twenty-one laboratories for the students; and similar preparations are made for them in other sciences, by plans, books, models, paintings, &c. In short, every thing seems done, that can be done, to encourage the students to make themselves masters of theoretical and practical mathematics, of mechanical knowledge, of painting, sculpture, chemistry, botany, &c. &c. On the laboratories we should have observed, that three are for the lecturers, the other eighteen are for the private experiments of the students. Our author attended several lectures, with which he was very much pleased. To the account of this school are added some interesting anecdotes of various men of science to whom M. Schmeisser was introduced; and we were glad to find that Pelletier was very busy with the melting and smelting of platina, which, though he now does it with phosphoric acid, by an expensive preparation, may hereafter probably be brought into more general use.

Manufactures are also rising in Paris. The earthen ware and the leather are nearly equal to those of our own country.

An interesting account is given of the mode of making saltpetre, and of filling balloons by means of the hydrogen. In one of the balloons our author rose in the air, and saw with what ease the telegraph, affixed to the car, could be used. In every place, attention was paid to every circumstance; and the specimens of iron crystallisation, on the melting of the iron tubes used for filling the balloon, did not escape the curious eye of this traveller.

To the two great national institutions already mentioned, we must add a third, the Ecole des Mines, the school for mineralogy. In this school every thing relating to mines is taught, and plans are laid for working to advantage those already known in the republic, and for discovering others. The heads of this school are men of the first talents: by them our author was introduced to others; and he was capable of examining, by their several cabinets, their various pretensions to merit. With the account of them this volume is concluded: but it is the author's intention to continue his description, which must be interesting to every lover of science. From the number of persons now employed in scientific pursuits, we cannot doubt that Paris will continue for some time to be the most interesting city in the world.

*Œuvres complètes du General Dumouriez. Tome Premier. Etat présent du Royaume de Portugal. Nouvelle Edition, revue, corrigée, et considérablement augmentée. 4to. Hamburg. 1797.*

*The Works, complete, of General Dumouriez. Vol. I. Containing the present State of the Kingdom of Portugal. A new Edition, corrected and considerably enlarged. 4to. Imported by De Boffe.*

**T**HIS *present state* is the republication of a work for which Dumouriez collected materials during a residence of thirteen months in Portugal, in the year 1766. On his return, he presented a manuscript copy of it to a literary friend, annexing a particular proviso, that he should correct the style; but the latter, without attending to that stipulation, sold it to a bookseller of Lausanne, who printed it in its unpolished state. Other employments dismissed the work, for a time, from the author's recollection; but he was reminded of it in 1775 by M. de Vergennes, who informed him, that the Spanish and Portuguese ambassadors, in consequence of instructions from their respective courts, had made a formal complaint against the book, and accused Dumouriez of being the author. He neither denied nor admitted this charge, but contented himself with observing, that, the work being anonymous, and printed at Lausanne, the French minister

for foreign affairs, and the two ambassadors, had no more right to inquire after the author than to punish the printer, and still less, upon a bare surmise, to prosecute a French colonel, employed usefully in the service of the state; and at that time charged with an important commission, &c. The three ministers were convinced by this argument, and agreed to leave the book to its fate, and not give it celebrity by a prosecution. During his present retirement, he conceived, however, that the work was worthy of a revival; and not being able to improve it by a journey into Portugal, he availed himself of the corrections and remarks of his friends; which he has printed between inverted commas, leaving the plan, sentiments, &c. in all other respects the same as in the old edition.

These corrections and additions are, upon the whole, very few and inconsiderable in point of importance; so that the book is still materially deficient as a statistical account: yet there are many things in the historical part which are new; and the character of the court at the time of Dumouriez's residence is curious, and probably may be relied upon. As a *present state*, we are inclined to give the preference to Murphy's Travels, lately published in this country\*, and which M. Dumouriez appears to have read. The following observations on the political state of Portugal may have some weight at the present crisis. They are taken from book IV. chap. 9, which has been nearly re-written, in consequence of the new order of things in Europe.

*Of the political state of Portugal.*—The political state of Portugal is a state of constraint, admitting of no choice; for the nation cannot consult its inclinations either in its friendship or enmity. The court of Lisbon is attached to that of London from necessity, is the enemy of Spain by nature, and of France, because France is the rival of England. That power which possesses the greatest force by sea will always have the greatest influence with the rulers of the Portuguese, because their possessions beyond seas are more essential to them than any others, and may easily be wrested from them; and they have neither ships nor troops to defend them against a great maritime power.

It might have been possible, formerly, to have engaged Portugal in the family compact; which would have been advantageous to the south of Europe: but the decay of the French navy, the increase of that of the English, the assistance which the latter have always afforded to the Portuguese, the old and intimate union between the courts of Lisbon and London, and the confederacy of the courts of

\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XV. p. 364.

Verfailles and of Madrid againſt England, determined the Portuguese to take the only part which their intereſt could point out. Independently of that fear which forms the principle of their unequal alliance with a power which reaps all the advantage of it, they are attached by ties which greatly reſemble chains by their ſtrength and weight; and they are, in fact, ſubjects rather than allies. Beſides, they have never been left to the choice of a neutrality; they have been attacked and haraſſed; and the diſgraceful campaign of 1762 totally alienated their minds from every idea of an alliance with France, the poſſibility of which, indeed, was deſtroyed by the unfortunate war of 1757. Yet, if the marine of France ſhould be put upon a ſolid footing, and if, in another war, the arms of France happen to be more ſucceſſful, the Portuguese may be detached from their alliance with England, and obliged, firſt to adopt a neutrality, and then to form a confederacy againſt the power which has kept them enſlaved. It is incumbent on France to deſtroy the connections of Portugal, not by negotiation, but by force of arms. The loſs of Portugal to the Engliſh would be a ſubtraction of their greateſt reſource; and all nations intereſted in the humiliation of Great Britain ought to direct their efforts to that object of deprivation.

‘ Portugal will never revive till then; for its preſent ſtate, although rather flouriſhing, is a ſtate of ſervitude which the nation reſents, and of which the Engliſh have not the prudence to ſoften or diſguiſe the inconvenience and the diſgrace. There never were allies who were more the maſters of a people, and never were maſters more ſevere. They inſult even while they pretend to oblige, and create ingratitude by the manner of their conſerring obligations. By enlightening the Portuguese, they teach reſentment of their ſlavery, and the wiſh of reforming their improvers.

‘ The intereſt of Spain, for the ſake of perfect tranquillity, would be to enter into a ſolid friendſhip with the Portuguese in order to relieve itſelf from enemies againſt whom the Spaniards will always make a diſgraceful war, while they deſpiſe them, and know not how to make the attack. Thoſe enemies are in the middle of their country all expoſed, and can give them much uneaſineſs: but national pride and implacable hatred will oppoſe real advantage, until the French ſhall ſhow the example.

‘ In the mean time, there is much converſation at preſent reſpecting the favourable inclinations of France and Spain towards the court of Liſbon; and ſome pretend to foreſee an approaching alliance, which will deſtroy the ſeeds of war. I am willing to admit the ſuppoſition for a moment;—but would it be advantageous? The Portuguese would ſtill retain

a partial neutrality ; and it is better that they should be open enemies than neutrals, because a war with them will at least afford the means of revenge against the English, to whom Portugal operates as a powerful diversion, and because a peace with Portugal would only give protection to the English trade at Lisbon and Oporto, without being productive of any benefit to the Spaniards, whom it would deprive of the indemnity which a war, not dangerous in itself if well conducted, might present. Neutrality, therefore, or a mere peace, would be useless, as far as regards Portugal, which ought to make a positive alliance or an open war, and to have the liberty of a decided choice between France and England. Here is the great difficulty. How can we believe that the Portuguese will abandon their alliance with the English, who feed them, and hold their factories, — who are at the head of all their companies, — who escort or may capture their Brasil fleets, — protect their colonies or may ruin them, — furnish supplies to Lisbon, or may starve that city by blocking up its port, — who are masters of the sea that surrounds Portugal, — and who hold its government by fear, and its people by interest ? What an advantage might not be reaped from an alliance with France and Spain, which would repair its losses, and prevent its ruin !

‘ There are two reasons which may probably engage the conde D'Oyeras to incline his politics towards the enemies of England. First, his age, and his aversion to war, may render him desirous to conclude his life and his ministry with a peace, and consequently to amuse the two courts with which he treats, by an appearance of good-will. Secondly, the unmarried state of the young emperor revives the pretensions of Portugal, and draws her to an union with the two courts, which have power to obstruct her views respecting the marriage of the young infanta. These appear to be the real motives of the apparent good-will of the conde D'Oyeras, — of the good understanding which prevails, and of the negotiations which may be on foot. I will venture to affirm, that force only can break treaties cemented by force, and that the enmity or friendship of the Portuguese must depend on the success of a future war \*.

‘ The French revolution totally changes the face of the European interests, in whatever way the French government may be settled : the age of courtly intrigues is past ; and the question hereafter will involve the fate of nations, whatever their forms of government may be. If, as every event seems to render probable, this dreadful war shall terminate in favour of France, — if, after having subdued and settled the continental nations which

\* These reflections, with little alteration, are copied by Dumouriez from the first edition. What follows is original.



coalesced against her, — mistress of the Netherlands, — supporting herself in the Indies, — fortunate in her depredations on the English trade, — having the disposal of the marine and ports of Holland, — she shall have no enemy to combat but England, exhausted by her excessive expenses, weakened by factions, and disgusted by a ruinous war, which the ministry have carried on against the will of the nation, — then it may be presumed, that proud Albion will not long continue the despotic sovereign of the sea, and will return to be, what nature intended, a power of the second class. Then the connections between England and Portugal will dissolve of themselves. Then France, if she has the wisdom not to abuse her triumphs, will be the support and natural ally of the powers of the second class against the confederacy of invaders, because she will present, in her external politics, the simple principles of liberty and equality, very new in affairs of negotiation, and which will alike curb the ambition of kings and people. Then Portugal will become the ally of France, as well as Spain, the king of Sardinia, perhaps raised to be king of Lombardy for the peace of Italy, the king of Naples, the Dutch, Denmark, Sweden, the Swifs, and Venetians, some small states in Italy, Turkey, and the Germanic body which France will re-invigorate.

‘Such will be the league of liberty against the coalitions of ambition. Free trade will form the principal article. This league will one day restore the Polish nation, and the true balance of power between all the states of Europe, founded upon reason and equality. Such is the true system, not of universal peace, which is a philosophic dream, and which the human passions will not suffer to exist, but of a kind of general tribunal, stronger than the Amphictyons of Greece, which will render more short and less dangerous the disputes that may arise between the members of the grand social body of Europe.’

A translation, purporting to be of this work, has just reached us. Its title is,

*An Account of Portugal, as it appeared in 1766 to Dumouriez; since a celebrated General in the French Army. Printed at Lausanne in 1775. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Law. 1797.*

This proves to be a translation of Dumouriez' old work, ‘with all its imperfections on its head,’ and more, furnished by the translator, who has thought proper to omit every reflection that was made, at the expense of England. This is absurd; for if Dumouriez made assertions untrue or unjust, they would fall by their own weakness; if otherwise, why are we grown so *nervous*, that we cannot bear to be scolded for our faults? In other respects, the translation is well executed, and some deficiencies are supplied by notes.

*Mémoires sur diverses Antiquités de la Perse, et sur les Médailles des Rois de la Dynastie des Sassanides; suivis de l'Histoire de cette Dynastie, traduite du Persan de Mirkhond. Par A. J. Silvestre de Sacy, de l'Académie des Inscriptions & Belles-Lettres. A Paris. 4to. 1793. Imported by Molini.*

*Memoirs on different Antiquities of Persia, and on the Medals of the Kings of the Dynasty of the Sassanidæ; together with the History of that Dynasty, from the Persian of Mirkhond. By A. J. Silvestre de Sacy, of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres.*

THE four memoirs, of which this collection consists, were read before the academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres in 1787, 1788, 1790, and 1791, and, though printed in the following year, (with the exception of the leaves that contain the Arabic and Persian texts) were with-holden on account of the pre-requisites for printing the appendix \*. The first, the third, and the fourth memoirs have, properly speaking, but one object; as the monuments explained in them belong to the same country, are written in the same language and character, refer to dates little distant from each other, and severally relate to the princes of the dynasty of the Sassanidæ, which, succeeding to the Parthian or Arfacidæ, occupied the throne of Persia till the conquest by the Moslemin; that is, about 420 years, or from the 223rd of our æra to the middle of the seventh century. The second memoir has a reference to several inscriptions of which the object is much less remote: some in the old Arabic character going up to the fourth century of the Hejra; others, in modern Arabic and Persian, of the ninth century of the Hejra; and both belonging to Moslem princes. If the object, age, language, and characters of these inscriptions alone be considered, they have little concern with the subject of the three other memoirs: but, as they are engraven on the ruins of the same edifices which contain the inscriptions explained in the first, M. de Sacy has joined them to the rest.

The history of the Persian kings of the dynasty of the Sassanidæ is in general little known. It is upon this account, therefore, that the translation of a part of the great historical work of Mirkhond is subjoined. M. de Sacy observes, that he might have contented himself with presenting an extract only; and

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\* It is much to be lamented that the Specimens, in our founderies, of the oriental characters, and especially of the Arabic, are not only a disgrace to them, but deserve to be inslaved as the most ugly in Europe, whilst those used by M. de Sacy are unquestionably the most beautiful, and, as such, are recommended to our letter-founders' attention.

adds, that the Persian historian would perhaps have appeared to the critical eye with no less advantage, if the improbable details of the recital had been retrenched; but as nothing is more difficult than to determine with precision between what are really historical facts and those which are simply traditions, he hath preferred an accurate version, which may serve to furnish materials for the professed historian.

Under the title of '*Relaciones del Origen, Descendencia, y Sucesion de Los Reyes de Persia,*' Teixeira professes to have taken Mirkhond for his guide: but M. de Sacy remarks, that, so far as the dynasty of the Saffanidæ is concerned, the Spaniard will scarcely appear to have at all consulted him.

The text of Mirkhond is accompanied with notes, chiefly geographical, extracted from a Persian work, entitled *Nozhat-Alcoloub*, by Hamdullah Ben-Aboubecr Alcazvini (who died in 750 of the Hejra, 1449 of Christ), frequently cited by D'Herbelot under the title of the *Persian Geographer*. M. de Sacy intimates the probability that he shall, upon some future occasion, cause the geographical part of *Nozhat-Alcoloub* to be still better known.

To the Preface introducing these Memoirs, the author hath prefixed a short notice of Mirkhond, and the emir Ali-Schir, to whom Mirkhond dedicated his work; together with an extract from the *Journal des Savans*, which, besides an account of the memoirs themselves, contains some important explanatory remarks.

To appreciate with justice the merits of this volume, a more extended discussion would be requisite than our stated limits can admit; and, whilst such a discussion would be interesting to few, those who are solicitous to investigate the subject will naturally recur to the work itself. Learned men with whom we have conversed, give the author the praise to which he aspires; we, however, must confess that there are several particulars, and some of importance, to which we cannot accede. That M. de Sacy has discovered great learning and ingenuity, we readily allow, and should have been glad to have added that he had effected our conviction.

# OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT

OF

## FOREIGN LITERATURE.

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### FRANCE.

**T**HE productions of French typography are still numerous, as well in polite literature as in the sciences ; but we have only been able to procure materials for a very imperfect list of the works which have lately appeared at Paris.

*Connoissance des Temps, pour l'Année sixième, &c. Knowledge of the Seasons and the Weather, for the Year 1798, 8vo.*—The novelties of this volume are, various observations on eclipses, from the pen of M. de la Lande ; a history of the recent progress of astronomy ; an ascertainment of the positions of different stars ; and other useful particulars.

*Annuaire de la République Française, &c. Almanac for the Year 1798, 18mo.*—This is an accurate publication.

*Théorie de la Terre. Theory of the Earth, 5 vols.*—To this edition, which is the second, M. de la Metherie has added a system of mineralogy.

*De l'Aranéologie, &c. Of the Connection between the Atmospheric Variations and the Movements of Spiders, by Quatremère-Disjonval, 8vo.*

*Elémens d'Histoire Naturelle, par Aubin-Louis Millin. Elements of Natural History, 8vo.*—This performance was published before the jury appointed for the examination of elementary books had given a sanction to it : but those censors have since honoured it with their approbation ; and it has been registered among those books which are to be printed at the expense of the nation.

*Tableau Encyclopédique et Méthodique des trois Règnes de la Nature Botanique, par La-Marck. A Regular View of the three Divisions of Botany, 4to.*—The author of this piece being a botanist of great reputation, the public may conclude that it is well executed.

Essai sur la Doctrine de Brown. Essay on Brown's Doctrine of Incitability, by Rizo, of Constantinople.

Anatomie Philosophique et Raisonnée, par le Citoyen Hauchecorne. Scientific Anatomy, 2 vols. 8vo. — This writer treats an unpleasant subject in an agreeable manner.

Tableau Synoptique des Muscles de l'Homme, &c. Synopsis of the Human Muscles. In this publication, professor Chaussier has given an improved classification of those appendages of the body.

Observations sur la Nature et sur le Traitement du Rachitisme, &c. Remarks on the Nature and Treatment of the Curvature of the Spine, 8vo. — M. Portal has here displayed a great degree of professional skill; and numerous cases attest his accuracy.

Essai sur la Gangrène, &c. Essay on the humid Gangrene, by Moreau and Burdin. — This essay has met with the approbation of some of the most distinguished members of the faculty.

Théorie des Fonctions Analytiques, &c. An Essay on the Principles of differential Calculation, by La-Grange, 4to. — This is generally allowed to have considerable merit. A work of the same kind has been recently composed by La-Croix; but he has only published one volume of it.

Mémoire sur les Usages de l'Ellipse, &c. On the Use of the Ellipse in spherical Trigonometry, by Goudin, 4to.

Essai sur les Ouvrages, &c. Essay on the Physico-Mathematical Works of Leonardo da Vinci, 4to. — Thirteen volumes of the manuscripts of that celebrated painter having been sent to Paris from Italy, professor Venturi was permitted to examine them; and he intends to publish, without delay, those which relate to mechanics, hydraulics, and optics. It appears that da Vinci made various discoveries in natural philosophy, of which others obtained the credit. The preparatory essay is well written; and, besides the philosophical part of it, it contains an account of the life of Leonardo, and a list of his pictures and drawings.

Mémoires Militaires, &c. An Account of the Passage of the Rhine by General Moreau and his Army; of the Siege of Kehl; and of other Operations of the Campaign of the Year 1796.

Principes de l'Ordonnance et de la Construction des Bâtimens, &c. Principles of Architecture; by C. F. Viel, 4to. — This treatise is said to be highly worthy of attention.

Règles des Cinq Ordres, &c. Rules of the five Orders of Architecture, by Delagardette.

Plan d'un Emprunt-Loterie, &c. Scheme of a Loan by way

way of Lottery, 4to. — M. Le-Fèvre here proposes the appropriation of the profits of a lottery to the improvement of inland navigation, and other useful purposes.

Voyages Physiques, &c. Philosophical Travels in the Pyrenees, in the Years 1788 and 1789. The author, whose name is Pafumot, principally treats of the natural history of the environs of Barège, Bagnères, Cautères, and Gavarnic.

Essai Politique et Philosophique sur le Commerce et la Paix, considérés sous leurs Rapports avec l'Agriculture; par J. B. Rougier-la-Bergerie. A Political and Philosophical Essay on Commerce and Peace, considered with regard to Agriculture. — This work comprehends useful hints of political oeconomy.

Pensées Politiques, &c. Thoughts on various Branches of Politics, by Maublanç, 12mo.

Des Moyens de régénérer la France, &c. Of the Means of regenerating France, and accelerating a durable Peace, by De-la Croix, 8vo.

Histoire des Hommes Illustres, &c. History of Persons who have done honour to France by their Talents and their Virtues, 4 vols. 12mo. — This is a biographical *epitome*, intended for the perusal of youth.

Le Mentor Chrétien, &c. The first volume of the Christian Instructor. — The compiler has made great use of the sentiments of Benelon.

Cœuvres de Fréret. The Works of Fréret, 20 vols. 12mo. — In this edition some pieces, before unpublished, are inserted.

Cœuvres de Vauvenargues, &c. The Works of Vauvenargues, containing philosophical, critical, and moral Essays, 2 vols. 18mo. — A better edition has appeared in octavo.

Reflexions sur le Culte, &c. Remarks on Worship, on civil Ceremonies, and national Festivals, by Reveillère-Lépaux, 8vo. — These reflections are not profound; nor are they contemptibly trivial.

Vues d'un Citoyen, &c. Thoughts on Funerals, 8vo.

Des Effets de la Terreur, par B. Constant. Of the Effects of Terror, 8vo.

Essai sur les Antiquités du Nord, &c. Essay on the Languages and Antiquities of the North, by C. Pougens.

Elémens Raisonnés de la Grammaire Française, &c. A new French Grammar, by Roullé, 3 vols. 8vo. — It is not well executed.

Elémens de la Langue Italienne, &c. A Method of learning the Italian Language with Facility, by Siret, 8vo. — This work is superior to the English grammar of the same author.

Une

Une Journée de Paris. A Cursory Account of Paris, 18mo. — It is lively, but frivolous; and it is couched in an affected style.

Les Soirées, &c. The Evening Reflections of a Recluse, 8vo. — The political parts of this volume are not uninteresting; and the writer (M. Chappuyzi) has introduced an entertaining narrative of a tour into the territories of Chablais and Vaud.

Alphonse d'Armencourt, &c. The Handsome Widow. — This is a wretched novel, written by Madame de Sancy.

Les Infortunes de Maria, &c. The Misfortunes of a Persian Slave: — a tale of little novelty.

The following works have been published in different provincial towns of France.

Système Méthodique, &c. A Methodical System of Muscular Classification, by C. L. Dumas. Montpellier.

Manuel du Physiologiste, &c. Fundamental Propositions of the Science of Animal Economy. Metz.

Théorie de la Nature. Theory of Nature, by J. A. Cazalet. Bourdeaux.

Journal des Mères de Famille, &c. Bourdeaux, — This is a periodical work, calculated for the instruction of mothers in the best means of preserving the health of their children.

Histoire des Révolutions, &c. History of memorable Revolutions. Lyons, 1796.

Many translations have also been recently given to the world by the French *literati*. Those which chiefly call for our notice, are, a translation of Plato's Letters, of the Politics of Aristotle, Adam Smith's Considerations on Languages, Ferguson's Essay on Civil Society, Murphy's Tour in Portugal, Parkinson's Account of Cook's first Voyage, Muller's Association of the Princes of the Germanic Body, some of the pieces of Dr. Franklin the American philosopher, Gibbon's Miscellaneous Works, and Sterne's Sentimental Journey.

## H O L L A N D.

Gerardi Vrolik Dissertatio, &c. A Medico-Botanical Dissertation. Leyden, 1796. — It principally treats of the fall of the leaf.

P. J. Van Maanen, Med. Doctoris, Oratio de Studio Chirurgico, &c. An Oration calculated for the Promotion for Chirurgical Knowledge. Harderwyck, 1796.

Brief, &c. A Letter to Citizen Hahn concerning a Tax proposed for the Batavian Republic. Leyden.

Reddingii Observationes, &c. Critical Remarks on some of the Psalms, 8vo. Franeker, 1795.

Theſium Controversarum Decades XXVIII. Controversial Discussions, by Voorda. Leyden, 1796. These relate to points of jurisprudence.

Lofreden, &c. a Panegyric upon Schultens the Orientalist, by Kantelaar, 8vo. Amsterdam.

Anacreonti quæ tribuuntur Carminum Paraphrasis Elegiaca. A Paraphrastic Latin Version of the Poems of Anacreon, by Hœufft. Dordrecht, 1795.—We do not approve the application of the elegiac metre to the light effusions of the Teian bard: but the verses of Hœufft are not despicable.

Tafreel, &c. Account of the last Revolution of the United Provinces, 8vo. Amsterdam, 1796.—This is represented as a faithful and well-written narrative of a remarkable revolution.

Carminum Sylloge Altera, &c. A Second Collection of Poems, by Nodell, 8vo. Rotterdam, 1796.—Some of these pieces are pleasing and elegant.

Anthologia Græca, 4to. Utrecht.—The classical reader will be pleased to hear, that M. de Bosch has enriched this edition of the various pieces of the minor Greek poets, with the Latin version of the celebrated Grotius, of which he with difficulty obtained a manuscript copy.

## NETHERLANDS.

Coup-d'Œil sur les Remarques, &c. A Survey of the Remarks of the Physician Caels on a late Publication, 8vo. Brussels.—Caels had animadverted on the methods proposed by M. Vanaſbroeck, in a work entitled Nature the best Physician, for the gentle and easy cure of disorders; and the assailed practitioner defends himself with spirit.

## SWITZERLAND.

Tabulæ Phytographicæ, &c. Botanical Tables, by John Gefner, folio. Zurich, 1795.—Dr. Schinz is the editor of this performance of his deceased friend; and he has added to it an useful commentary.

Carite



*Caite et Polydore*, 12mo. Lausanne, 1770. — The author of this tale is Barthélemy, to whom we are indebted for the *Travels of Anacharsis*.

*Cyrus et Miltio*, par H. D'Ussières. Geneva, 1796. This is a political romance.

*Histoire des Vaudois*, &c. History of the Inhabitants of the Western Valleys of Piedmont, 2 vols. 8vo. Lausanne. — The history of the Vaudois is interesting to all protestants; and it is not ill recounted by M. Brez in these volumes.

*Acroama de J. J. Steinbrychelio*. A Discourse on the Merits of Steinbrychel, by Hottinger, 12mo. Zurich, 1796. — The person here praised was an eminent philologist, whom his panegyrist has succeeded in some of his academical posts.

## SPAIN.

*Dissertacion Botanica*, &c. Dissertation on various Plants, by Don Joseph Pavon, 4to. Madrid. — Some new plants are described by this writer, who, by visiting Spanish America, has augmented his botanical knowledge.

*Collecion*, &c. A Collection of Papers on Subjects of Botanical Controversy, 12mo. Madrid, 1796. — This volume was published by the celebrated botanist Cavanilles, at the command of his catholic majesty.

*Pharmaciz Elementa*, &c. Elements of Pharmacy, connected with modern Chemistry, 4to. Barcelona, 1796. — F. Carbonel has here given a clear view of the principles of the pharmaceutic science.

*Noticias varias*, &c. A Variety of curious Notices respecting Madrid, for the year 1797.

*Juicio de la Historia de Espana*, &c. An Examination of Mariana's History of Spain, by the Marquis of Mondejar, 8vo. Madrid, 1796. — Some of the errors of Mariana are corrected by this critic.

*El Siglo Pitagorico*, &c. The Pythagorean Age, by A. H. Gomez, 8vo. Madrid, 1796. — A moral and amusing piece.

*Cartas de Heloysa*, &c. Letters of Eloisa and Abelard, in Spanish Verse, accompanied with Notes. Salamanca. — The letter in the name of Eloisa is translated from Pope.

## ITALY.

*Elementa Juris Romani*, &c. Elements of the Roman Law, by Scorzasave, 8vo. Naples, 1796. — This treatise is

well adapted for the instruction of students in the civil law.

*Disegno di Lezioni, &c.* Researches into the Hebrew Language, by A. Muzzi, 8vo. Pavia, 1796.

*Vita di Antonio Cavallucci, &c.* Life of Cavallucci, the Painter, 8vo. Venice, 1796. — Targioni has here delineated the character of the artist with the skill of a connoisseur.

## GERMANY.

*Aphroditographische Fragmente, &c.* Account of the Planet of Venus, by Schroter. Helmstadt, 1796.

*Phytographia, &c.* A Description of uncommon Plants, by Willdenow, folio. Erlang, 1794.

*Tentamen Dispositionis Fungorum, &c.* An Attempt for a Methodical Arrangement of Vegetables of the Mushroom Kind, by Persoon, 8vo. Leipzig. — The accuracy of this treatise is acknowledged by botanical judges.

*Elementa Terminologiæ Botanicae, &c.* Account of Botanical Terms, by Plenck, 8vo. Vienna, 1796. — The definition of each term is accompanied with an example.

*Annalen der Botanik, &c.* The twenty-first number of Uster's Annals of Botany. Leipzig. — This number contains an account of a new species of *ornithogalum*, a dissertation on the *phallus*, the observations of Savi and Roth, and a review of new botanical works.

*Abhandlung, &c.* Treatise on some acoustic Instruments, translated from the French of M. Lambert, with an Appendix, by Professor Huth, 8vo. Berlin, 1796. — The Appendix contains proposals for the improvement of speaking-trumpets.

*Historia Systematis Salivalis, &c.* Physiological and Pathological View of the Salival System, 4to. Jena. — Dr. Siebold has here evinced some medical and chirurgical ability.

*Über die Wirkung, &c.* On the Operation of Mineral Waters, by Wichmann, 8vo. Hanover.

*Nachrichten über das Französische Kriegs-spitalwesen.* Information respecting the French Military Hospitals, by Wedekind. Leipzig.

*Betrachtungen, &c.* Reflections on the Art of War, 8vo.

*Begebenheiten, &c.* Adventures of F. C. Laukhard in the present War. Leipzig, 1796.

*Collection de Quarante-deux Plans, &c.* Forty-two Plans of the most memorable Battles and Sieges of the War of seven Years by J. F. Roesch. Franckfort on the Mayn, 1796. — These plans are remarkably accurate.

Krijik

*Kritik der Deutschen, &c.* A Critical Survey of the German Constitution, 8vo.

*Allgemeine Historisch-topographische, &c.* An historico-topographical Account of Caucasus, 8vo. Gotha, 1796. — This is a compilation, by Schröder, from the papers of the deceased Dr. Reinegg.

*Handbuch, &c.* Manual of Geography, 8vo. Weimar: — the first volume of a work of merit.

*Neues Historisch, &c.* New Historical and Biographical Dictionary, by Grolunann, 8vo. Leipzig, 1796. — This work is not yet finished.

*Das Gelehrte Teutschland, &c.* Learned Germany; or an Account of living Writers, 8vo. Lemgo. — Professor Meuseil is the editor of this performance; and he has not only improved the similar work of Hamberger, but has added the German artists to the *literati* of the country. How many volumes the whole will make, we have not learned.

*Erläuterungen, &c.* Illustrations of the first book of Samuel, and of the Proverbs of Solomon, by Hensler, 8vo, Hamburg, 1796.

*Versuch, &c.* An Investigation of the negative religious Principles of the French, 8vo. Franckfort, 1796. — A positive rather than a negative religion is recommended by the writer of this dissertation.

*Von Erlöser der Menschen, &c.* Of the Saviour of Mankind, 8vo. 1796. — J. G. Herder here discusses various points relative to the author of the Christian religion.

*Denckmahl der Freundschaft, &c.* A Memorial of Friendship and Love, 8vo. Leipzig, 1796. — A tribute to the memory of the late Marianne Ehrmann.

*Abhandlungen, &c.* Dissertations on various Systems of Morality, by Conz, 8vo. Tübingen, 1795.

*Entwurf eines Werkes, &c.* Sketch of a Work on the Subject of Old Age, by Dr. Valli; translated from the Italian, by Bonelli, 8vo. Vienna, 1796.

*Description du Cabinet, &c.* M. de Murr's Description of the Cabinet of Paul de Praun. Nuremberg.

*Dionis Cassii Romanarum Historiarum quæ supersunt, &c.* The Remains of the Roman History of Dio Cassius, 3 vols. 8vo. Leipzig. — Penzel is the philologist who prepared this edition; and the emendations and criticisms of Reimar and Reiske have served as the foundations of his labours.

*Alciphronis Rhetoris Epistolæ, &c.* The Epistles of Alciphron the Rhetorician, 8vo. Leipzig. — Bergler's commentary is printed with these entertaining epistles; and Wagner has added his own notes and those of several other critics, having

having previously examined, with a degree of accuracy superior to that of some of his predecessors, a variety of manuscript copies.

*Aristophanis Comœdiæ, &c.* The Comedies of Aristophanes, 8vo. Leipzig. — Invernezini has published the third volume of this edition, which is not deficient in accuracy.

*Æschyli Tragœdiæ quæ supersunt.* All the extant Tragedies of Æschylus, 8vo. Halle. — This, which is the fourth volume of the publication, will not derogate from the reputation of Schutz.

*Arati Phænomena.* The Phænomena of Aratus, 8vo. Leipzig. — Buhle is the editor of this poem; and he has added to it the treatise of Leontius on the Sphere.

*Athenæi Deipnosophistarum Libri Quindecim:* 8vo. Leipzig: — a new edition of Athenæus, which is yet unfinished.

*Theocriti Epithalamium Helenæ.* The Poem of Theocritus on the Marriage of Helen, with Notes by Siebdrat, 8vo. Leipzig.

*Apollonii Rhodii Argonautica.* The Poem of Apollonius on the Expedition of the Argonauts, 8vo. Leipzig. — The learned Beck is the person employed in this edition, of which the second volume is now published.

*Versuch einer Kulturgeschichte, &c.* History of the Progress of Civilisation among the States of ancient Greece. Vol. I. 8vo. — Professor Hartmann has been praised for the manner in which he has executed this volume.

*Über die Reinigkeit, &c.* On the Means of promoting and establishing the Purity of the German Language, by Kindinger, 8vo. Berlin, 1795.

*Versuch, &c.* Essay on German Synonymy, 8vo. Halle, 1795.

*Xenophontis Ephesii Ephesiæcorum Libri Quinque, &c.* The Romance of Xenophon the Younger, 4to. Vienna, 1796. — This is the best edition which has appeared of a romance not very estimable. The new Latin version, and the remarks on the text, do credit to the baron Locella.

*Neue Miscellaneen, &c.* New Miscellanies, 8vo. Leipzig. — This is a periodical publication, relative to antiquities, the arts, &c.

## S W E D E N.

*Allgemeines Schwedisches, &c.* General Account of the State of Literature in Sweden, during the Reign of Gustavus III. by Ludeke, 7 vols. 8vo. Stockholm, 1796. — This work has been long under the author's hands; for the first volume made

560 OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT, &c.  
made its appearance in the year 1781. The execution of it  
deserves a favourable report.

## R U S S I A.

*Ανακρεοντος Τῆς Μελῆ, &c.* The Poems of Anacreon, 4to  
Peterburg, 1794. — This is a splendid edition, with regard  
to paper and typography. It is accompanied with a Russian  
translation.

A REVIEW

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# A R E V I E W

OF

## P U B L I C A F F A I R S,

F R O M

The Beginning of MAY to the End of AUGUST, 1797.

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### F R A N C E.

**W**HEN the gallant and enterprising Charles VIII. invaded Italy before the close of the fifteenth century, his progress was surprisingly rapid; but the vigour of his arms made no permanent impression. The success of Louis XII. in the same part of Europe, though it was not so speedily checked, was frail and delusive. But, at the present critical and eventful period, remarkable and fundamental revolutions in the political state of Italy have resulted from the efforts of the troops of the French republic. Constitutions, sanctioned by time and habit, have been subverted; and the people have emerged from that servitude by which they had been long depressed. It is incumbent on them to restrain the fervour of democratic innovation, and prevent the absorption of genuine liberty in the abyss of licentiousness and anarchy.

During the contest between the French and the forces of his imperial majesty in the circle of Austria, the leaders of the Venetian aristocracy raised a military force with a view of preventing the return of Buonaparte into Italy; and many of the subjects of that government took opportunities of assassinating the stragglers from the French army.

APP. VOL, XX. NEW ARR.

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The victorious general having denounced vengeance against the Venetians for these outrages, the senate disclaimed all encouragement of such conduct, promised to punish the offenders, and professed a desire of maintaining concord and friendship with the Gallic commonwealth. These declarations were considered by Buonaparte as insincere; and the sequel proved that they were so. Different parties of the Venetian soldiery attacked the divided battalions of the French; and, at Verona, the latter were closely besieged; but, though they were driven from the town, they soon recovered it. A manifesto now appeared in the name of Buonaparte, who, after an enumeration of acts of hostility committed by the Venetians, recalled the French minister from their metropolis, and declared that he would treat their troops as enemies, and seize the Terra Firma of their state without delay.

This peremptory denunciation filled Venice with confusion; but it gave great joy to those who wished for a change of government. Regardless of the existing authorities, the friends of democracy held political meetings; and various changes of the constitution were proposed and discussed. Notwithstanding the opposition of a strong party, it was resolved, on the 11th of May, that a more democratic form should be given to the Venetian republic; and the French were invited to the capital, to superintend the completion of the new government. In the mean time, a municipality was erected on the French model; a circumstance which produced a riot among the populace. The houses of some of the innovators were attacked, and other outrages ensued; but the commotion was quelled with little effusion of blood. A body of French arrived on the 16th; and they were received as friends and protectors.

A proclamation which was emitted by the new municipality tended to reconcile, to the altered government, many who would otherwise have been unfriendly to it. Apprehensions had been entertained of the non-payment of the public debt; but the proclamation intimated, that the financial engagements of the former administration would be inviolably observed. This conduct reflects credit on the new rulers; and we hope that none of the eventual changes of government, in Italy or in any other country, will

will be attended with injury to those who trusted their money on the basis of national faith.

Deputies being sent from Venice to treat with Buonaparte, he demanded, as the price of his protection, the cession of the Terra Firma, subject to the provisional restitution of a part of that territory; the grant of a large sum of money, besides paintings, statues, and manuscripts; the annihilation of the old constitution; the liberty of garrisoning the city; and the partial surrender of the Venetian navy. These terms were accepted; and the boasted constitution of Venice became an empty name. In consequence of this agreement, directors were appointed by the general for the administration of the Venetian affairs; and, in concert with this executive council, the municipality continued its assumed functions. Mazini, who had acted as doge under the late government, was permitted to act as one of the directors; and his popularity gave weight to the new arrangements.

Under the auspices of the French, the revolutionary spirit also extended itself to Genoa. A body of mal-contented assembled in arms, and insisted on a reform of the government; but they were soon attacked by soldiers, workmen, and others, and were defeated with some slaughter. The leaders of the administration, trusting to the loyalty of the prevailing party, flattered themselves with the hope of maintaining their authority unimpaired. They were therefore surprised when they found that the successful combatants refused to obey their orders, and waited for an opportunity of following the example of the Venetians. French emissaries eagerly fomented the patriotic zeal, or the turbulent spirit, of the unsubmitting body; and Buonaparte gave directions for the formation of a camp near the city. The approach of this force encouraged the democratic phalanx to act with vigour against the aristocracy; and the Genoese constitution was on the verge of ruin. The privileges of the nobles were diminished, if not annihilated: the rights of the people were asserted; and all who had been imprisoned for sedition were restored to liberty. The flame spread to Finale, and other towns of the republic; and several conflicts took place, in which the adherents of the old government were generally unsuccessful. Contributions were levied by Buonaparte: a provisional administration



tion was adjusted; and the French interest was triumphant.

With respect to the state of affairs between the French and the emperor, it may be remarked, that, after the signature of the preliminaries, the former evacuated the Austrian territories, and the generals of the opposite armies drew a line of demarcation, beyond which the troops were not to pass. A proclamation was published at Vienna, for superseding the general levy of troops which the court had ordered; but, in acknowledging the loyal zeal which had been displayed, Francis intimated his hope, that, if his pacific views should be frustrated by adverse circumstances, he might depend on the renovated ardour of his people.

Though the preliminaries were ratified by the emperor on the 23d of April, he has not yet confirmed them by a definitive treaty. The negotiations have been long continued at Udina; but the circumstances with which they are attended, or the causes of the delay of pacification, are objects of conjecture rather than of notoriety.

The internal affairs of the French republic, within the four months which are comprehended in this survey, were more interesting than those of the preceding period. The members of the directory did not act in strict concert with the majority of the two councils. They wished to be wholly independent of the legislative body; but the moderate party endeavoured to counter-act the establishment of such an oligarchy. In a message which was communicated, on the 16th of May, from the directory to the council of five hundred, the law which orders the supercession of one of the members of the executive body, was censured as unconstitutional; and a refusal of enforcing it was intimated. This refractory behaviour produced indignant murmurs in the assembly; and the law was not allowed to be thus evaded.

The introduction of the new third of each council took place on the 20th of May. So many individuals who were not very friendly to republican government had been chosen by the people, that the violent party could not conceal its displeasure. The majority, however, disregarded the murmurs of the factious part of the community, and gladly received the new deputies. Pichegru, who had signified his military talents in defence of the state, was elected president of the council of five hundred, by a considerable

considerable plurality of votes; and Marbois was honoured with the same dignity in the other assembly. Some days afterwards, the former body prepared a list of candidates for the office of director, in the room of Letourneur, on whom the lot of discharge had fallen; and the person of whom the council of elders made choice, was Barthélemy; not, as some have asserted, the author of the *Travels of Anacharsis*, but a respectable individual of the same family, who was then acting in a diplomatic character at Basse. It was supposed by many, that he would not accept the offered employment; but, being desirous of contributing to the complete re-establishment of order and tranquillity in France, as well as to the restoration of general peace in Europe, he acquiesced in his elevation to power. In his way to Paris, he was received with as much honour and respect as if he had been a sovereign prince. The price both of the French and English funds rose on his appointment; and the people drew, from his well-known moderation, conclusions favourable to their wishes for peace. But these pleasing hopes were checked by the apprehension of his want of influence over his associates.

The debates of the legislature, for some time after the late partial renewal, were, in general, less acrimonious and vehement than they had been before that change; and superior lenity was evinced in the result. Some rigorous laws against the relatives of emigrants were repealed; and various prudent and moderate regulations were adopted. These proceedings excited the clamour of the factious citizens, who accused the leading members of a dangerous attachment to royalty.

The state of the French colonies being taken into consideration, it was proposed, that a general pardon should be granted for revolutionary crimes committed by the inhabitants, and that measures should be taken for establishing the constitution in those settlements. St. Laurent, and the other commissioners who had acted improperly in the island of St. Domingo, were recalled to France to give an account of their conduct; and three agents, whose functions were to expire in a year and a half, were sent out for the purposes of colonial reform.

The subject of finance gave rise to frequent debates. On one of these occasions (June 16), Desmolicres drew an unpleasant picture of the state of the treasury, and recom-

mended an immediate peace as the only efficacious remedy for the disorders and distresses of the nation. He complained of the extravagant demands made by the directory upon the committee of finance, and of the weakness of the latter in giving way to such requisitions, founded as they were on no other basis than delusive pretences of promoting the return of peace. In a subsequent meeting, he moved for the annihilation of the power of the directory over the public purse; and his proposition was embraced. Le-Clerc condemned this resolution in strong terms, as the effect of prejudice and animosity, and urged the repeal of it: but his speech was received with great disapprobation; and, after a contest more violent than had for some time been witnessed, the assembly proceeded to other business. The council of elders, however, in which the violent faction gradually gained strength, favoured the executive power by rejecting the resolution.

The conduct of the directory, in encouraging the measures which Buonaparte had taken against the aristocratical governments of Venice and Genoa, did not meet with the approbation of the council of five hundred. Dumolard reprobated this violent interference as an infringement of the constitution, and of the law of nations; and moved for a particular inquiry into these proceedings. He, at the same time, proposed an investigation of the predicament in which the republic stood, both with regard to Switzerland and the United States of America. The majority agreed to his various motions.

Amidst these discussions, an alarming spirit of faction appeared in the revival of those meetings from which so much mischief had flowed. Seditious clubs were formed in Paris and other towns; and the members of these societies took every opportunity of inveighing against what they termed the anti-republican measures of the moderate party. Proper steps were not taken either for crushing these clubs as they successively arose, or for restraining them within due bounds. Duplantier, indeed, and other senators, exerted themselves against these associations; but the remedies proposed were too long neglected.

The favours which were granted to the banished clergy afforded a pretence to the clubs for arraigning the proceedings of the legislature. The debates on this subject were frequently renewed; and various propositions were made

in behalf of the unfortunate ecclesiastics. At length, on the 15th of July, the scheme of Dubruel was sanctioned by a great majority of votes. It was resolved, that the laws which had denounced the punishment of exile against the clerical non-jurors should be repealed; that those laws by which banished priests had been put on the same footing with emigrants, should also be annulled; and that the individuals in question should be reinstated in all the privileges of French citizens, on complying with the conditions which the constitution prescribed. It was then moved, that they should be required to sign a declaration of submission; but, after a warm debate, La-Rivière (who had succeeded Pichegru as president) declared that the decision was adverse to the enforcement of the declaration. This point being doubted, the nominal appeal was demanded; and it appeared, that the majority promoted the declaration.

One ground of dispute between the directory and the legislature, related to some of the subordinate ministers, whom the former, notwithstanding strong objections and complaints, retained in their employments. Affecting to relax in their obstinacy, the directors gave orders for some official changes. They dismissed De-la-Croix from the department of foreign affairs, and appointed Talleyrand-Perigord (formerly bishop of Autun) to succeed him. M. de Neuf-château was declared minister of the interior, and La-Roche administrator of the police. Truguet was obliged to resign the management of naval concerns to Pléville; and general Hoche was requested to act as minister of war. These appointments were not altogether acceptable to those who had censured the conduct of the displaced officers; and it was affirmed, that the remedy was worse than the disease.

To secure a victory over their adversaries, three of the directors (Reveillère-Lepaux, Barras, and Rewbell) formed arbitrary schemes of violence. They secretly ordered the approach of bodies of soldiers to the capital; and, with this unconstitutional aid, they resolved to proceed to extremities against the leaders of the opposite party, if they should not be able to effect their purpose by terror alone.

In a debate which followed the change of the ministry (July 18), apprehensions of directorial machinations were hinted; and it was moved by Camille, that the national

guard should be organised. Dumolard, though he was not disposed to believe, that the executive power would venture to excite commotions to the prejudice of the legislature, as it would injure itself by such unjustifiable conduct, seconded a motion calculated for the public security; and the council of five hundred ordered a report to be prepared on the subject. This speaker, at the next meeting, was chosen president. The rumour of military preparation gaining ground, an inquiry was made into the truth of it. Aubry stated, that some regiments of cavalry had arrived within seven leagues of Paris; and he expressed his hope, that the punishment denounced by the constitution might be inflicted on those who had promoted such an illegal measure. A message being sent to the directory for an explanation of the circumstance, an evasive answer was given. The expediency of arming being again discussed, La-Rivière deprecated all delay of necessary preparation: but Pastoret advised a postponement of all resolutions on this head, till the necessity of such precaution should be fully demonstrated; and the assembly voted an adjournment of the debate. This want of vigilance may be justly blamed, as the schemes of the directorial conspirators were sufficiently clear to authorise immediate arrangements of defence.

The arbitrary triumvirate amused the council with assertions of the tranquillity of the metropolis, and of the readiness of the means of preventing any attempt to disturb it. A report was also presented from the new minister of police, who endeavoured, in subserviency to his three employers, to lull the suspicions of the senators.

A plan of military organisation was prepared by a committee, consisting of Pichegru and four other members; but the adoption of it was still postponed, in compliance with the suggestions of those who were of opinion, that it would be a rash step, equivalent to a declaration of war. After other debates, however, the plan was sanctioned. Another step was now taken, which ought to have been adopted at an earlier period. This was the suppression of the clubs, to which both councils at length agreed. About the same time, the unpopular La-Roche was dismissed from his employment, to make way for Sotin, who, having formerly had a narrow escape from Jacobin fury, was no friend to the system of terror. General Hoche excused himself

himself from an acceptance of the post which had been offered to him, alleging that he was disqualified, as he had not attained the age of thirty years; and, though the directory pressed him to undertake the office, he persisted in his refusal. General Scherer was then appointed to the vacant department.

After a course of inquiries relative to the march of troops, De-la-rue brought forward the report of the committee, stating, that above 26,000 men had been drawn from the army of the Sambre and Meuse; that this force, followed by an ample *apparatus* of artillery, advanced towards the metropolis; that the men who composed this detachment had been taught to entertain the most injurious prejudices against the legislative body; and that Hoche encouraged their disobedience to the orders which had been issued for their retreat. This report increased the alarm of the well-disposed citizens; and the dread of convulsion pervaded the community.

The contest gradually became more critical; and the explosion seemed not very remote. Each party accused the other of revolutionary schemes, and of the most criminal and sanguinary intentions. The president Dumolard, on the 10th of August, warned the council of the danger to which liberty was exposed from the intrigues of ambition; reminded his hearers of the bloody despotism of Robespierre; and intimated the necessity of vigilance and spirit for the counteraction of the attempts of those traitors who sought the revival of that infamous system. On the other hand, the leaders of the directory imputed, to their opponents, a desire of subverting the constitutional government, and of risking the horrors of a civil war for the ruin of the republican party, and the extinction of genuine freedom.

After a succession of debates which we cannot be expected to particularise, warm altercation arose (on the 30th of August) from Du-Prat's denunciation of a pamphlet published by Bailleul, a strenuous advocate for the directorial cause. In this piece, the vilest calumnies, and the most scurrilous obloquy, were thrown out against the senatorial majority. Le-Hardy justified the sentiments and assertions of the writer, and declared his firm belief of the existence of an anti-republican plot. Tallien, and several other speakers, supported this opinion, amidst a violent clamour, which

which the president (Simeon) could not effectually repress. Dumolard and Thibaudeau vindicated the proceedings of the majority with eloquence and spirit; but the assembly refused to stigmatise its bold calumniator.

The scheme of a new tribunal, proposed by Thibaudeau for the more effectual prevention of treasonable conspiracies and other crimes, met with strong opposition from the friends of the directory, who reprobated the project as iniquitous. It was repeatedly discussed, but not sanctioned.

The dreaded conspiracy was, at length, fully discovered in its effects. By the secret orders of the triumvirate, troops were posted in different parts of the city; and, early in the morning of the 4th of September, a strong detachment, led by general Moulin, approached the Tuilleries, and, in defiance of the national guard, entered an apartment in which Pichegru and twelve other members were assembled. These senators were apprehended as criminals, and conducted to the Temple. Other individuals, obnoxious to the triumvirate, were afterwards arrested and imprisoned; and Barthélemy was one of the number. Carnot, who favoured the moderate party, would also have been seized, if he had not opportunely escaped.

The authors of this scheme of violence now issued a proclamation, denouncing instant death to every person who should propose the restoration of royalty, or the establishment of the constitution of the year 1793, as well as to all who should commit any act of pillage. These severe denunciations were followed by an order for the occupants of a theatre called the Odeon, and of the School of Health, to resign the halls in those buildings to the two councils, on pain of being declared rebels, but under the promise of an indemnification. An order was afterwards given for the confinement of the editors and printers of thirty-two journals, that they might be tried for having conspired against the republic.

While the chief posts of the city were occupied by the soldiery, to whom the national guard had readily submitted, the two councils assembled; and they soon received from the directory the pretended proofs of the unconstitutional machinations of the arrested senators and their accomplices. In the message which introduced these papers, the necessity of providing for the maintenance of the con-

situation

stitution was stated as the forcible ground on which the executive managers had acted. If the delay of a single day had occurred, the republic, it was said, would have been subverted, and the pretender, who styles himself Louis XVIII. would have fixed the yoke of slavery on the necks of the people. A committee of public safety was appointed; and a report was prepared, in which the views of the subdued party were declared to be of the most dangerous nature, while the proceedings of the directory were justified and applauded. The subservient members approved this report, and adopted arbitrary resolutions against the supposed delinquents. As the provincial assemblies were said to have made choice of emigrants (who had returned in defiance of the laws), rebellious chiefs, and the most obnoxious individuals, not only for the legislative body, but for various public functions, it was readily voted, that the proceedings of the primary and other assemblies, in many of the departments, should be annulled; and the persons thus excluded from senatorial and other offices were superseded by the friends of the victorious faction. It was decreed, that the emigrants who had returned should be banished; and that the law which recalled the exiled ecclesiastics should be repealed. It was also resolved, that not only the directors Carnot and Barthélemy, but Pichegru, Desmolieres, Pastoret, Dumolard, La-Rivière, Aubry, and fifty-nine of their confederates, should be transported without delay to whatever place the directory should appoint. Eight names, according to some accounts, were, on subsequent consideration, erased from the list; and Thibaudeau was one of those who received this indulgence.

The proceedings of the triumvirate were palpably unjust and tyrannical. The evidence of a plot for the restoration of royalty was weak and unsatisfactory; for, though some of the opponents of the directory were inclined to promote such an event, the majority do not appear to have entertained the least idea of abolishing the republican constitution. But, while we condemn the usurpatory violence of the oligarchical cabal, our indignation is in some degree diminished, when we consider, that no lives have been sacrificed on the occasion, and that the persons whom, however innocent, such miscreants as Robespierre and Couthon would have put to death, have been merely banished, undoubtedly by an iniquitous decree, but by an act of power



less atrocious than the conduct of former republican tyrants.

## GREAT BRITAIN.

While the public anxiously waited the effect of those preliminaries of peace which we mentioned in our last Appendix, and which, it was eagerly hoped, would extend their influence to Great-Britain, an affair occurred, which, though of a less important nature, requires some notice. The eldest daughter of his Britannic majesty having acquiesced in the royal wish for her entrance into the matrimonial state, her parents agreed to the proposals of a German prince, who, though his father is a catholic, has attached himself to the reformed faith. We allude to the hereditary prince of Wirtemberg (Frederic William) who has for some time ruled that state in the name of the indisposed duke. On the 3d of May, the king sent a message to each house of parliament, intimating his persuasion that an alliance with this prince would be acceptable to his people, and requesting that such a portion might be granted to his daughter, 'as would be suitable to the honour and dignity of the crown.' Addresses of compliance were voted; and it was resolved, that 80,000 pounds should be allowed as the dowry of the princess. It might have been expected, that the sovereign would have portioned his daughter without a fresh demand upon the public, in whose burthens the court might participate without repining; but, amidst the profusion of millions, so small a sum is almost unworthy of notice.

Before the completion of the marriage, the prince of Wirtemberg made a short tour into some of the south-western counties of England. When he approached the metropolis in his return from this excursion, he was met by a deputation of courtiers, and conducted to St. James's palace in formal procession; and splendid preparations were made for the nuptials. The marriage was solemnised on the 18th; and it was followed, according to the usual practice, by festive entertainments and popular addresses, till the prince and his bride embarked for the continent.

The general attention was soon recalled from this transient subject to the momentous concerns of the fleet. Though the disturbances at Spithead and St. Helen's were

suppressed, appearances of discontent were observed among the seamen at the Nore. These symptoms gradually increased; and, as the concessions made to the sailors at Portsmouth had been extended to the whole royal navy, it was allowed, even by many of the opposers of the ministry, that the new commotions arose from a spirit of turbulence and sedition, rather than from the desire of a redress of grievances. Others, however, were of opinion, that some of the additional demands were not unreasonable.

In the interval, between the accommodation at Portsmouth and the alarming mutiny at the Nore, the seamen at Plymouth were guilty of some irregularities, and in a state of insubordination; but the remonstrances of their officers, and the return of cool reflection, restored order among them. More vigorous measures were requisite for the re-establishment of discipline at the Nore.

The Sandwich was the ship in which the delegates or representatives of the mutineers assembled; and here, on the 20th of May, they framed a series of demands, declaring, that they would not return to their former subordination, unless their desires should be granted. Besides the increased allowance of wages and provisions, they required, that, on the arrival of a ship in harbour, permission of absence should be allowed to the men (but to a limited number at a time), for the purpose of visiting their friends; that all arrears of wages, down to six months, should be paid before a ship should put to sea; that no officer who had been discarded from a ship should be again employed in the same vessel, without the consent of the crew; that a more equal distribution of prize-money should be made; and that some of the articles of war should be abrogated, and others altered. The lords of the admiralty declared, in reply, that they could not give the seamen any hopes of the grant of their additional requests; and intimated, that, if the mal-contents should delay their submission to lawful authority, the royal clemency, which they were now at liberty to receive, would be exchanged for the rigours of justice.

Dissatisfied with the answer from the admiralty, the delegates continued to exercise their usurped authority. In a subsequent communication from the board, the offer of pardon was renewed: but it made no impression on the mutineers;

tineers; and it was announced as the determination of the delegates, that they would not come to any accommodation, unless some of the lords of the admiralty should repair to the Nore, and personally engage for a redress of the grievances of the fleet. This peremptory declaration was followed by defensive arrangements, and a disposition of the ships in lines of battle.

Such rebellious proceedings rendered it necessary, in the garrison of Sheerness, to prepare for hostile operations. The fortifications were hastily improved; and the utmost vigilance and strictness of discipline prevailed. The seamen who came on shore were apprehended as delinquents, except such as were dismissed by the delegates for a non-compliance with their views.

The mutineers had made choice of Richard Parker, a bold aspiring man (whose education was in some degree superior to that of the generality of his comrades), as the director of their affairs, and the president of their council. Elate with the confidence which they reposed in him, he seemed more desirous of establishing himself in the possession of unconstitutional sway, than of reverting to those habits of regularity and subordination, which all societies demand, and which his profession particularly requires.

Besides the grand council, committees were formed in the different ships; and those seamen who refused to obey the commands of these self-constituted assemblies, were frequently punished with rigour. Being debarred, by the precautions of government, from a communication with the shore, the delegates added robbery to their usurpation of power; for they did not scruple to plunder some mercantile vessels of various articles of subsistence. Others they were content to detain, with a view of demonstrating the firmness of their resolution, and of intimidating the court into an acquiescence in their wishes. The ministry, however, resolved not to yield to the seditious arrogance of the insurgents; and, though some members of the board of admiralty repaired to Sheerness, no agreement ensued, as they were not authorized to make any concessions. A proclamation, issued on the 31st of May, was also ineffectual. The confederate seamen defied the menaces which it held out, and continued to violate the law and the constitution.

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When the nautic sedition had risen to this height, a royal message was sent to the parliament, stating the necessity of demanding the utmost assistance of the faithful subjects of the crown for the suppression of such a dangerous mutiny, and desiring the two houses to make more effectual provision for the prevention and punishment of all attempts to propagate disobedience and disorder among the seamen or the soldiery. An address of loyal promise was voted by the peers without debate; but, when the same subject was agitated by the commons, Mr. Sheridan lamented, that the demands of the sailors had not been examined by commissioners specially appointed, persons of different parties and descriptions, whose determination might have had a better effect than the endeavours of the lords of the admiralty; and he also objected to that part of the intended address in which the house would pledge itself for the extension of the code of criminal law, as he did not think that the existing laws were inadequate to the present purpose. When the address had been voted, the premier moved for leave to introduce a bill corresponding with the purport of the message. The persons, he said, who had stimulated the seamen to act in so disloyal a manner, were the worst of traitors, and merited exemplary punishment; but, as it was difficult to ascertain, in a legal view, the nature and extent of such practices of artful seduction, he would merely consider the crime as an aggravated species of misdemeanor, and would propose that it should be left to the discretion of a court of judicature, to inflict, on such seditious instigators, the penalties of fine and imprisonment, or the punishment of transportation, as circumstances might require. Serjeant Adair contended, that these inflictions would be too lenient, as the offence was equal to the most heinous species of treason, and deserved death in its most horrid form. This sanguinary suggestion, however, did not meet with the approbation of those who had strong sentiments of humanity; but, in the progress of the bill, it was ordained, that death should be the fate of those who should 'actually endeavour to induce any one, in his majesty's land or naval forces, to make or commit any traitorous or mutinous act whatever.' In consideration of this increase of the rigour of the bill, it was declared to be only a temporary measure, adapted to the critical exigency of affairs. Another bill was brought forward,

ward, by which it was decreed, that, when the lords of the admiralty had pronounced any ships to be in a state of mutiny and rebellion, whoever should have the least intercourse with the men belonging to such vessels should suffer death, and that all persons voluntarily remaining on board should be adjudged guilty of piracy and felony. Sir John Sinclair deprecated the ill consequences which might attend such impolitic severity; but the attorney-general was of opinion, that the clauses were dictated by justice, and that the best effects were likely to flow from such measures. The two bills were quickly carried through both houses, and sanctioned with the ready assent of the sovereign.

Proposals of accommodation were made to the king by the delegates, before they knew of the enactment of these bills; but the court disdained to enter into any negotiation with those usurpers, and trusted to the measures which were taken for starving the mutineers into a surrender, or for enforcing it by an attack. They sustained an occasional diminution of their strength by the retreat of different ships, which, though exposed to a cannonade, effected their escape. Divisions ensued among them when the new acts had been communicated to them, with a proclamation which intimated that the commissioners of the admiralty were empowered to accept the submission of those who were disposed to sue for mercy; and, though the leaders exerted themselves for the promotion of strict union, their endeavours had little effect. The crews of several ships declared their intentions of returning to their duty; and, by these, the union flag was hoisted, instead of the red flag, the symbol of the seditious confederacy. On the 9th of June, the attempts which were made for an escape produced great confusion; and some mischief ensued from hostilities between the retiring and the remaining ships of war. Taking advantage of this contest, many of the merchantmen and colliers escaped from that detention to which they had been arbitrarily subjected. The delegates now resolved to try the efficacy of another appeal to the crown; and they contented themselves with requesting that the officers who had been dismissed as obnoxious to the seamen might not be re-instated, and that the whole body of mutineers might receive a full pardon. But the court insisted on unconditional submission.

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The resolute conduct of the court, and the preparations for an attack of the rebel fleet, at length intimidated the insurgents into a total forbearance of ulterior contest; and the leaders thought only of the means of escaping the vengeance which they dreaded. Being eagerly desirous of making an example of the president Parker, the government offered a reward of five hundred pounds to those who should apprehend that daring mutineer. He failed in an attempt to make his escape; and, on the 14th of June, he was seized in the *Sandwich* by a party of soldiers, having been previously secured by the crew. He was conveyed to the prison of *Maldstone*; and other delegates, with many of the less distinguished seamen, were also confined. One of the leaders of the confederacy shot himself before he was apprehended, to avoid a more ignominious death. In some of the ships, many of the men were still refractory; but, by sending troops on board, and taking other steps, the officers of the fleet restored order and discipline.

A court-martial being appointed for the trial of the offenders, Parker was arraigned on the 22d of June. He was accused of having treated his superiors with disrespect, contempt, and disobedience, and of having produced or encouraged a mutiny among the seamen. Admiral *Buckner*, being brought forward as a witness, deposed, that, when he went on board of the *Sandwich* in May, he found the officers dispossessed of their authority; that Parker delivered into his hands a list of pretended grievances, and announced the determination of the seamen to retain the power which they had assumed, till all grounds of complaint should be removed; that his flag was soon after taken down without his orders; that, when he was inquiring, on shore, into the delinquency of two marines, the prisoner entered the room abruptly, and, telling him that his power was at an end, carried off the two men; and that, in the conferences which he had with the refractory seamen, he generally found Parker acting as their leader.

From the testimony of other witnesses, it appeared, that Parker exercised his power in an arbitrary manner, domineering over the sailors, and punishing them with occasional flagellation; that, when the *Republic* endeavoured to escape into the harbour of *Sheerness*, he commanded the crew of the *Director* to fire at her from all the decks; and that he was guilty of other illegal and mutinous acts.

In the defence which he read to the court, he alleged, that he had studiously laboured to repress the discontent and the clamours of the seamen when the mutiny arose; that he was constrained to accept the office of president of the committee of delegates, by importunities which he could not resist; that he had made use of his authority, as far as his efforts would avail, for the purpose of promoting an accommodation, not of inflaming the contest; that he did not give orders for firing at the Repulse; and that the acts of power imputed to him proceeded from the injunctions of the committee.

This vindication not being satisfactory, it was declared that the charges had been fully proved; and the prisoner was condemned to death. He received this alarming denunciation with coolness and intrepidity; and expressed his hope, that his fate might be deemed a sufficient atonement to his country, and that all his comrades might be indulged with the royal clemency. He was hanged in the Sandwich, on the 30th of June; but his humane request was not granted; nor was it consistent with the demands of justice, or with the purpose of deterring others from similar practices, that he should be the only victim. Seven mutineers, selected from the crew of the Leopard, suffered death on the 10th of July; and others, belonging to different ships, were also executed.

All parties united in a reprobation of the conduct of Parker and his confederates. Their mutiny, indeed, was highly criminal; and their delinquency was aggravated by the calamitous state of the realm; for such proceedings, at all times mischievous, must be particularly dangerous when a nation is involved in war with a powerful and malignant enemy, harassed by interior dissensions, and nearly exhausted in its resources by a continuance of the most severe exactions and the most exorbitant prodigality.

Having forborne to interrupt our survey of the mutiny, by the mention of any of the intervening parliamentary transactions, except those which took their rise from that remarkable event, we now enter upon the consideration of the other proceedings of the legislature.

The failure of former attempts for procuring the dismissal of Pitt and his chief associates, did not prevent the  
duke

duke of Bedford from making a similar effort. On the 30th of May, he assigned his reasons for urging the peers to address their sovereign for that purpose. The war which had been so eagerly prosecuted, he said, had been so far from producing the effect desired by its advocates, that it had even strengthened and established that republic which it was intended to subvert. It had been so egregiously mis-conducted, that an unprecedented consumption of treasure had served only to evince the futility of ministerial endeavours. It was not, however, a just cause of regret, that a war undertaken on improper grounds had proved inefficacious, as a restoration of Gallic despotism was not a very desirable event. — He proceeded to observe, that the conduct of the cabinet, in point of negotiation, was equally deserving of censure, with the mismanagement of the war; and that the measures of internal administration, instead of atoning for other acts of delinquency, were grossly invasive of the constitution, and calculated for the annihilation of the liberties of the people. — He then animadverted on the disordered affairs of finance. The premier, he said, paid no regard to prudence or economy. He had endangered public credit, in an alarming degree, by his repeated demands upon the bank; and his financial proceedings were a tissue of extravagance, deception, and confusion. — He dwelt on such other topics as furnished grounds of censure; and drew from the whole a confident conclusion, that nothing but a change of men and measures could save the nation from ruin.

The duke of Grafton supported the proposition with warmth and energy; and he, as well as the duke of Bedford, declared, that, if the motion should be rejected, they would discontinue their parliamentary exertions, as useless and unnecessary. The earl of Guildford and the marquis of Lansdowne enforced the expediency of agreeing to the motion, or taking some similar step; but lord Grenville and the lord chancellor reprobated the proposed interference of the house, and imputed the most dangerous views to the advocates for the address. A majority of above six to one at length exploded the duke's motion.

In the house of commons, an attempt had previously been made by Mr. Fox, to procure a repeal of two acts which, in the opinion of his party, were highly disgrace-



ful to the administration of Mr. Pitt. He condemned the act for extending the law of treason, as oppressive and iniquitous; and that which related to seditious meetings, as equally unjust and unconstitutional; but these statutes were defended by serjeant Adair, though they were inconsistent with the principles which that senator formerly professed. Other members opposed the repeal; and so unpleasing was the motion for that purpose, that a majority of 208 quickly dismissed the application.

The propositions of Mr. Grey for a reform of the parliamentary representation, produced a more interesting debate. After an eloquent preface, the outlines of the plan were sketched. In the number of members for counties, it was not the intention of this reformer to propose any other difference than an augmentation of the list to 113. The election of two representatives for each riding in Yorkshire, and other inconsiderable additions, would, he said, quickly provide for this increase. But, to make the representation more distinct, he would divide each county into two parts, each of which should return one member. He would also make the right of voting more general, by an admission of copy-holders, and of lease holders above a certain rent and term of years, to that privilege. With regard to the elections for cities and boroughs, he would establish the right of suffrage in one uniform description of persons, namely, house-holders subject to taxes, in proportion to their number. By these means, the sense of the people would be more accurately known through the medium of parliament, than it could be under the present system, which, from the partial limitation of votes, and the exertion of sinister influence, could not properly be called 'a full, fair, and free representation of the commons of Great-Britain.' There was another point which he thought worthy of the serious attention of the house. This was the restoration of triennial parliaments; a measure to which no real patriot could reasonably object, as those assemblies, in compliance with the spirit of the constitution, ought not only to be *free*, but also *frequent*. If these suggestions should influence the house to agree to the introduction of a bill on the subject, he did not wish to have it completed in this session, but would leave it to the mature consideration of the members in the summer recess. As the subserviency of the parliament to the views

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of the court had been attended with pernicious consequences in former reigns, and, in the present, had reduced a flourishing kingdom to the verge of ruin, the necessity of a reform, he said, was strikingly evident to all who were not blind to the true interest of their country, which, without the adoption of salutary schemes of prevention, would be sacrificed, beyond the power of rescue, by the rashness and incapacity of the ministerial rulers.

When the motion for a bill of reform had been seconded by the zeal and vehemence of Erskine, the first lord of the treasury stated his reasons for opposing it; reasons, which he himself, if not in an official situation, would have indignantly condemned. He argued, that the chief feature of the plan, the grant of a right of voting to householders, would alter the whole frame of representation. Variety in that respect, he said, had been considered by the most judicious persons as highly expedient. True representation consisted of a happy mixture; differing in particulars, yet corresponding in the main object. Experience had confirmed the utility of this system; and it was therefore absurd to introduce, in lieu of it, a scheme which did not promise equal advantage. The people, he thought, were sufficiently represented; for, though some populous towns sent no members to parliament, the interests of the inhabitants were as much regarded by that assembly, as if they deputed many senators. The new scheme, besides being unnecessary, was peculiarly inexpedient and dangerous at this crisis, when the advocates of *the rights of man*, and the applauders of French innovation, were watching every opportunity of accelerating the subversion of the British constitution. The adoption of the proposals now suggested would forward the treacherous aims of those who, under the pretext of liberty, concealed the most extravagant and licentious views. The individuals whom this plan would content were comparatively few; and, as they had not even petitioned the house upon the subject, it would be a ridiculous instance of super-erogation to grant spontaneously a favour which was not apparently desired by the public. On the other hand, considered as tending to facilitate the aims of the republican societies, the motion was not merely absurd or unreasonable; but it was pregnant with the most alarming consequences and the most formidable mischiefs.

The abuses of the prevailing system were properly exposed by Mr. Sheridan, in answer to the ill-founded assertions of lord Hawkesbury, who had spoken in opposition to a reform, and in support of the existing grievances; and Mr. Fox, after stigmatising the apostasy of the minister, conjured the house to assent to a temperate reform, rather than incur, at a future period, the risk of being compelled to adopt it. On a division, the house concurred with the premier, by a majority of 165 votes.

A sense of the inutility of all endeavours to stem the torrent of ministerial influence, prompted Mr. Fox and some of his associates to declare, that they would desist from obtruding their opinions on the house. They hoped to augment, by such forbearance, the odium which their triumphant adversaries had excited; but their conduct had not the effect which they wished; for it was ridiculed by the friends of the court; and, among those who were deliberately anti-ministerial, nothing could aggravate the odium which they justly entertained against the mis-conductors of the national affairs.

Soon after the enactment of the two bills which arose from the naval disturbances, the affairs of the bank were discussed by the commons. The resolutions of the directors of that society, stating the expediency of a continuance of the restrictions imposed in the former part of the session, were submitted to the house by Mr. Pitt, who declared his satisfaction in being enabled to affirm with truth, that, though it would be imprudent for the bank to resume its payments in cash, its circumstances were considerably improved. A bill was prepared for a prolongation of the term of suspension; and the house, deeming the measure necessary, gave a ready assent to it.

The objections which had been made to some of the taxes voted in the spring, were so strong and general, that the minister consented to abandon the augmentation of the duty upon advertisements, and also to give up the new tolls. These defalcations, and some modifications which he adopted, diminished the estimate of his second budget in the sum of 660,000 pounds. To provide for this deficiency, he moved, that, on the 30th of June, an additional tax should be paid for every horse employed in the concerns of agriculture; that pepper should be subjected to a new duty  
on

on importation, and coals on exportation; and that individuals should pay annually for the use of clocks and watches. The produce of these duties, added to new impositions upon the Scottish distilleries, he thus estimated :

Horses	-	-	-	-	-	£150,000
Coals	-	-	-	-	-	14,000
Pepper	-	-	-	-	-	15,000
Clocks and watches	-	-	-	-	-	200,000
Scottish spirits	-	-	-	-	-	182,000
						<hr/> £561,000 <hr/>

The new duty on horses, and the increase of the customs, were disapproved by Mr. Sheridan; and he divided the house upon the former tax; but only eight votes appeared against it. He recommended a tax on pleasure-grounds, pineries, and hot-houses, and other gratifications enjoyed by the opulent; but Mr. Pitt alleged the great difficulty of adjusting and levying such an impost.

To complete the provision for the deficiency above-mentioned, some additions to the national burthens were proposed on the 7th of July, and sanctioned by the house. These were new duties on male servants, and on horses kept for pleasure, besides an exaction of 20 *per cent.* on the assessed taxes.

In the speech with which his majesty closed the session (on the 20th of July), he signified in strong terms his satisfaction at the conduct of the two houses; and certainly, if any parliament ever merited thanks and praises for an uniform acquiescence in the royal will, such compliments are more particularly due to the present. Whether the people have reason to concur in the same acknowledgments, is a point of easy determination.

After the prorogation of the parliament, one of the democratic societies proposed to hold a deliberative meeting in the fields near the Veterinary College, alleging that such a procedure was consistent with the law. The party having assembled, three *tribunes* were erected; and a remonstrance addressed to the king was on the point of being recited: but a proclamation for a dissolution of the meeting was read by order of sir William Addington; and some of the leaders were taken into custody.

In North-Britain, the attempts for enforcing a new act

relating to the militia, were opposed by the inhabitants, who affirmed that the regulations were oppressive. Petitions were prepared in different counties, to procure a release from the operation of this statute; and, as the aversion appears to be general, the application will probably be successful.

During the session, the court had indicated a desire of putting an end to the war, if the French would accede to reasonable terms: After the association of the new third with the two councils, and the appointment of Barthélemy to his directorial office, it was resolved that a plenipotentiary should be sent to France for a renewal of negotiation. A letter from lord Grenville, proposing a treaty, was politely answered by De la-Croix; and the scene of conference was fixed at Lisle. Lord Malmesbury was again deputed as the negotiator on the part of Great Britain; while the French nominated Letourneur as the principal minister who was to treat for their republic. Both parties thought proper to avoid a premature disclosure of the particulars of the successive conferences: But there is reason to believe, that a restitution of the ships taken at Toulon (and perhaps an indemnification for those which were destroyed), a dereliction of the principal settlements wrested from the Dutch; and the grant of Gibraltar to the Spaniards; were peremptorily demanded by the French, and, either totally or in part, rejected. These disputes, however, might have given way to a pacification, if Pichegru and his friends had continued in power: but the success of the triumvirate gave a new turn to affairs; and, after two months of negotiation, lord Malmesbury was disgraced by a second dismissal from France; an event which affords a melancholy prospect to a suffering nation. How long we may be able to support a war which might easily have been avoided, we shall not pretend to decide: but, if it must still be prosecuted, we have no prospect of ultimate success under the auspices of the present cabinet.

Before the commencement of this unfortunate negotiation, sir John Jervis (who, in consideration of the victory which he obtained over the Spaniards in February, had been created earl of St. Vincent) had, for some weeks, harassed the Spanish allies of the haughty republic, by blocking up the important harbour of Cadiz. He at length resolved to bombard the town; and rear-admiral Nelson was employed

played to super-intend the operations. A bomb-vessel being placed within 2500 yards of the walls, the shells were thrown with vivacity as well as with precision. The Spaniards having sent out a great number of gun-boats and launches to an attack, the English quickly repelled them; and a second bombardment ensued; but it was more productive of temporary alarm than of real mischief. The rear-admiral was afterwards detached to the isle of Teneriffe; and, having reached the vicinity of Santa Cruz on the 24th of July, he ordered about nine hundred men to attack that town in the night. They were saluted with so copious a discharge of cannon and musquetry, that the attempt was extremely dangerous; but they dislodged the enemy from one post, and marched against the citadel, which proving too strong to be taken by a *coup de main*, they retired with precipitation. About two hundred and fifty men were killed, wounded, or drowned, on this occasion.

## I R E L A N D.

Of the conspiracy (or what others declared to be only a scheme of reform) which was discovered in Ireland, some particulars were communicated to the commons of that kingdom, on the 10th of May, in a report from the secret committee. It was stated, that the society of United Irishmen had a systematic organisation; that it consisted of a gradation of illegal committees, whose departments were precisely marked; that revolutionary schemes were deliberately arranged by these pretended reformers, who, from a small number, had augmented their party to 100,000 men; that, though the arms which they possessed were not proportionate to the number of individuals, they had a considerable stock, and even some pieces of cannon; and that they entertained such sentiments and views of democracy, as threatened the total ruin of the constitution.

Though this conjuncture seemed to many a very improper time for proposing a parliamentary reform, Mr. Ponsonby, who was of a contrary opinion, recommended a fundamental improvement of the system of representation, by a considerable extension of the right of suffrage, and other regulations. Mr. Grattan contended, that the alarming situation of the country furnished a strong reason for the adoption of the proposed reform, as so patriotic a measure would

would secure the attachment of all moderate and well-disposed persons, and detach them from all association with those who merely *professed* similar views, but who, in *reality*, had formed schemes which tended to the production of disorder and anarchy. All reformation, however, was disapproved as unreasonable; and the house disposed of the question by an adjournment. Mr. Grattan and some of his friends soon after seceded from parliament; and the former, in a nervous address to the people, alleged the servile dependency of the senate on the crown as the justification of his retreat. Though we admit the fact which he stated, we doubt the propriety of the secession.

Instead of giving way to a reform of parliamentary abuses, the court thought proper, by an increase of pay, to encourage the soldiery to act with spirit in the cause of royalty. As not only the navy, but also the army of Great Britain, had been indulged with such an augmentation, it was, indeed, reasonable, that an additional allowance should be granted to the troops of the sister kingdom.

The tumultuous state of the northern and other parts of Ireland still continued to alarm the friends of government. Conflicts occasionally took place between the soldiery and the mal-contented, who fought with daring obstinacy: depredations, and even murders, were not infrequently committed by those who styled themselves *defenders*; and a state of dreadful insecurity prevailed, between licentiousness on the one hand, and military rigour on the other.

Those who were called out to oppose the disaffected, were, in some instances, persuaded to join them: but a check was given to this practice by the execution of four men belonging to the Monaghan militia. Others, who had taken the oath of the society of United Irishmen, repented of their conduct, and escaped punishment.

A promise of pardon from the crown to such as should speedily take the oath of allegiance, and return to their duty, had a considerable effect in quelling the commotions. Multitudes were induced to make declarations of submission; and some, not content with those professions, betrayed such as were still refractory. Many of the conspirators are still detained in confinement; but others have been

been admitted to bail. Some of the offenders have been compelled to enter into the naval service.

A mixture of coercive and conciliatory measures at length restored peace and order. The lord-lieutenant and the ministerial party exulted in the success of their endeavours, and applauded the general loyalty of the people ; but the grant of some of the demands of the moderate party would be the best method of evincing the gratitude of the court for the zeal of popular attachment.

The parliament was prorogued on the 3d of July ; and a dissolution soon followed. The new elections have been attended with general tranquillity ; and it may be thought useless to add, that they are highly favourable to the interest of the court.

## H O L L A N D.

After a long series of deliberation, the Batavian convention, on the 30th of May, completed a constitutional code for the republic. When it had remained for some time unconfirmed, the primary assemblies met for the determination of the grand point, whether it should be accepted or rejected by those for whom it was framed. It was at length annulled by a great majority. It will therefore be the first business of that convention which has been recently elected, to prepare a constitution better adapted to practical utility.

A considerable fleet was equipped by the Dutch, in the summer, to assist the authors of their revolution. But the vigilance of admiral Duncan has been so efficaciously exerted, that their armament has been confined to the Texel.

## S P A I N.

The interruption of the Spanish commerce, by the cruises of British ships, and the blockade of Cadiz, occasioned great dissatisfaction among the merchants, who presented to their sovereign a memorial of complaint ; but he did not think proper to order his fleet to risk an attack. As the stagnation of trade rendered their capitals, in a great measure, useless, he proposed, that they should gratify him with a loan, on proper security. He obtained a large subscription at Cadiz ; but the merchants, in other maritime towns, were less willing to accede to the application.

The Spaniards not having been able to obtain Gibraltar by the negotiatory endeavours of the French, it is probable that they will attempt the recovery of that fortress by arms, as they may depend on the vigorous assistance of their allies  
in



in such an enterprise. They have long had an army near the isthmus; and we may, perhaps, soon hear of the commencement of offensive operations.

Sensible of the expediency of checking, by a mild sway, that revolutionary spirit which is particularly hostile to despotic monarchy, his catholic majesty gratifies his people with occasional indulgences, calculated to render them content with their situation. The gravity of the Spanish temper will prevent an imitation of the innovating enthusiasm of the French; but the time may not be distant, when the re-establishment of the *cortes* may be demanded, with a firmness which may silence refusal.

## P O R T U G A L .

The storm which threatened this declining realm has been averted by negotiation. The prince of Brasil, who acts for the queen his mother, was encouraged by the British court, with the promise of pecuniary supplies, to oppose the enemy with resolution; but, despairing of success, he sent the chevalier d'Aranjo to sue for peace; and, on the 10th of August, a treaty was signed at Paris. By this agreement it was stipulated, that the Portuguese, besides the forbearance of all co-operation with the enemies of the republic, should not grant the permission of entering their harbours to any of the armed ships of the belligerent powers, beyond the number of six for the larger ports, and three for the smaller; and that the sale of prizes should not by any means be allowed. By another article, the limits of Guiana were settled in favour of the French.

## I T A L Y.

The changes which this country has sustained, have spread consternation among the Italian princes. The king of Sardinia finds great difficulty in preserving the tranquillity of his dominions, amidst the widely-diffused zeal of innovation; and he has, at different times, arrested a great number of persons on the charge of seditious machination. Many of his soldiers have deserted; and he knows not how far he can depend on the service of the remainder. By strong measures, however, he has suppressed the commotions which arose at Asti and other towns: but the vicinity of the new Lombardian republic fills him with a constant dread of disturbance.

The grand duke of Tuscany is equally alarmed; and he has posted troops in his frontier towns, to counteract the propagation of French principles. The pope and the king  
of

of Naples are also in a state of apprehension; and seizures of suspected persons are frequent in their dominions.

The administrators of the Lombardian or Cis-Alpine commonwealth are desirous of forming one large republic of all the provinces in which the revolutionary rage has prevailed: but the rulers of the Cis-Padane state have signified their objections to such a coalition; and the Venetians and Genoese wish to remain under distinct governments. After some deliberation, Modena and other territories have been added to the Cis-Alpine state; and Romagna has been annexed to the Cis-Padane republic.

### S W I T Z E R L A N D.

Some differences have occurred between the French and the Swiss, respecting the territory of St. Gall, the navigation of the lake Lugano, and other points; but they have not been productive of a rupture. An insurrection of the inhabitants of the Valteline gave some alarm to the cantons, as it was apprehended that the malcontents would transfer their allegiance to the Lombardian government. Buonaparte, however, far from encouraging them to renounce their connections with the Helvetic confederacy, has obtained favourable terms for them by his mediation.

### G E R M A N Y.

The long delay of the conclusion of a definitive treaty with France, has kept the empire in a state of anxious alarm, lest the integrity of the Germanic body should be ultimately violated. The proceedings of the Prussian despot have not contributed to allay the uneasiness arising from this suspense; for he has seized the city of Nuremberg, and threatens other encroachments on established rights.

The emperor, taking advantage of the revolution at Venice, sent troops in June into Istria and Dalmatia; and the invaders met with rapid success. Other parts of the Venetian dominions were also added to the Austrian possessions, with the consent or connivance of Buonaparte.

### R U S S I A.

The moderation of the Russian emperor induced him to form the idea of a partial re-establishment of Poland as a separate state; but, being unable to prevail on the courts of Vienna and Berlin to concur in the measure, he abandoned all thoughts of it.

A new treaty of commerce has been concluded between this potentate and the king of Great-Britain. In one of the

the articles, it was stipulated in general terms, that the subjects of the contracting parties should not pay higher duties than *other nations* on the importation or exportation of their merchandise; but it was afterwards declared, that *European nations alone* were to be understood.

## TURKEY.

The grand signor is harassed with insurrections in some of his provinces. That which has broken out in Rumeli (the ancient Romania) more particularly alarms him, as the rebels are so near his capital. The inhabitants of the Venetian islands near the coasts of Albania and the Morea having imbibed a democratic spirit, he has reason to dread a revolt of his Grecian provinces; and a considerable diminution of his extensive empire may, perhaps, speedily be effected.

## EAST-INDIES.

Some new regulations, both judicial and commercial, have been enacted by the parliament for our settlements in India. Among the former we may mention the reduction of the number of judges; and the latter chiefly respected the permission of foreigners to carry on a regular trade with those dependencies of this country. The resolution (before mentioned) of sending the marquis Cornwallis to India, has been relinquished.

By recent accounts, we have been informed of a sanguinary contest between the English and the turbulent rajah of Cotote, in which the former sustained some disadvantage; but it was at the same time announced, that the dispute was on the point of being accommodated.

## WEST-INDIES.

The late incidents in this part of the western hemisphere have not been so advantageous to the British nation, as those which we had occasion to mention in the preceding Appendix.

With a confidence of success, which was encouraged by the reduction of Trinidad, the two commanders who had executed that scheme of conquest (Abercrombie and Hervey) sailed towards Porto-Rico, and anchored off Congtejos Point on the 17th of April. The smaller vessels of the squadron having entered a bay near the principal town, the troops disembarked amidst a trifling opposition from the enemy. Preparations were then made for forcing a passage into the small island on which the town stands. As a strong castle

castle commanded the entrance into the harbour, the Spaniards maintained such a communication with different parts, that the town could only be attacked on the eastern side; and, before a competent approach could be made to the fortifications, it was necessary that a *lagune*, which formed the intervening channel, should be crossed. Redoubts and gun-boats defended the passage; and, behind the former, the Spanish troops were entrenched. All the efforts of the invaders could not enable them to accomplish their purpose of passing from the great island to the small one. They could not long support, and still less could they silence, the fire of the works; and, though they bombarded the town for some days, the shells had scarcely any effect. It was therefore resolved, that the enterprise should be abandoned. Great order and regularity attended the retreat; and four Spanish field-pieces were carried off, while some pieces of the British artillery were left on the island. The number of persons killed, wounded, or missing, amounted to two hundred and twenty-five. Before this expedition, captain Pigot had taken or destroyed many small vessels on the western side of Porto-Rico.

In the neighbouring island of Hispaniola, hostilities continued to rage. Simcoe, the commander of the king's troops on that station, detached colonel Desfources against the enemy with 2000 men. This officer, having dispersed an ambushed party with small loss, assaulted with success the post of Boutillier; and that of St. Laurent was also taken. After several conflicts, the detachment (on the 17th of April) reached the works which the French had with great labour raised near Grénier; and, with little difficulty, the post was seized. The neighbourhood of Irois was the scene of more important incidents. Rigaud, with some of his best troops, made a fresh attempt upon that post. Twice were the assailants repulsed with considerable loss: but the attack was vigorously renewed; and the garrison would have found the preservation of the place impracticable, if a reinforcement had not opportunely arrived. A sally was now made with some effect; but the post was still threatened by the persevering foe, who hoped to reduce it by a regular siege. It fortunately happened, that captain Rickett, about this time, was passing Cape Tiberon with *La Magicienne* and two other vessels. Judging, from the preparations in Carcasse bay, that Irois was in danger, he entered the bay without hesitation, made a fierce attack, and captured or sunk the transports and store ships, to the great joy of the garrison.

The commander in chief afterwards prepared for the reduction,

duction of Mirebalais; a service in which he employed brigadier Churchill. The French were easily dislodged from an advantageous post which they had seized with a view of obstructing the march of their adversaries; and the place was quickly taken. An opportunity being now afforded for the relief of St. Mark, a detachment was sent for that purpose; and the besiegers were compelled to retire. In the defence of this post, the courage and conduct of the marquis de Cocherelle were eminently distinguished.

## NORTH - AMERICA.

The continuance of the misunderstanding between France and the United States occasioned an order for the meeting of the congress in May; and it was then resolved, that a renewed attempt should be made to restore harmony by negotiation. Disputes also subsist between the Spaniards and the Americans, who accuse each other of encouraging the Indians to hostilities. The prudence and circumspection, however, of the rulers of the republic, will probably prevent an eruption of the flames of war.

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